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THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY



VOLUME V • OCTOBER 1935 • NUMBER 4
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO PRESS

THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

Established by The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago with the Co-operation of The American Library Association, The Bibliographical Society of America, and The American Library Institute.

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The *Library Quarterly* was established by the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, with the assistance of the Carnegie Corporation, to fill the need suggested by a committee of the American Library Association for a journal of investigation and discussion in the field of librarianship. It is published in January, April, July, and October by the University of Chicago at the University Press, 5750 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. The subscription price is \$5.00 per year; the price of single copies is \$1.50, with the exception of the April, 1934, issue which is \$2.00. Orders for service of less than a half-year will be charged at the single-copy rate. Postage is prepaid by the publishers on all orders from the United States, Mexico, Cuba, Porto Rico, Panama Canal Zone, Republic of Panama, Dominican Republic, Canary Islands, El Salvador, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Peru, Hayti, Uruguay, Paraguay, Hawaiian Islands, Philippine Islands, Guam, Samoan Islands, Balearic Islands, Spain, and Venezuela. Postage is charged extra as follows: for Canada and Newfoundland, 15 cents on annual subscriptions (total \$5.15), on single copies 4 cents (total \$1.54); for all other countries in the Postal Union, 25 cents on annual subscriptions (total \$5.25), on single copies 6 cents (total \$1.56). Patrons are requested to make all remittances payable to The University of Chicago Press in postal or express money orders or bank drafts.

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For the British Empire, except North America, India, and Australasia: The Cambridge University Press, Fetter Lane, London E.C. 4, England. Prices of yearly subscriptions and of single copies may be had on application.

For Japan: The Maruzen Company, Ltd., Tokyo.

For China: The Commercial Press, Ltd., 211 Honan Road, Shanghai. Yearly subscriptions, \$5.00; single copies, \$1.50, with the exception of the April, 1934, issue which is \$2.00, or their equivalents in Chinese money. Postage extra on yearly subscriptions 25 cents, on single copies 6 cents.

Claims for missing numbers should be made within the month following the regular month of publication. The publishers expect to supply missing numbers free only when losses have been sustained in transit and when the reserve stock will permit.

Business correspondence should be addressed to The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.

Communications for the editors, manuscripts, and books for review should be addressed to the Managing Editor, THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Applications for permission to quote from this journal should be addressed to The University of Chicago Press, and will be freely granted.

Entered as second-class matter January 2, 1931, at the post-office at Chicago, Illinois, under the Act of March 3, 1879. Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of February 28, 1925, authorized January 9, 1931.

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Volume V

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METHODS FOR MAKING KNOWN TO INEXPERIENCED READERS THE RESOURCES AND FACILITIES OFFERED BY AMERICAN PUBLIC LIBRARIES¹

OUR instructions are to present a survey covering primarily American viewpoints and practices with regard to one of the large and important aspects of public library work, namely, how to help readers to get what they want! First, then, it is well to recognize that American public libraries have been undergoing a marked development in their more intensive and purposeful services. This is doubtless both a cause and an effect. The American public, regardless of its libraries, is unquestionably more serious minded and ambitious than ever in its study and reading interests—this despite the counter-attractions of radio, movies, automobiles, and jazz. It is evidenced by the market for substantial books, the constantly increasing number and circulation of subject magazines, the flood of useful pamphlets, bulletins, and reports from a myriad of organizations; rapidly increasing enrolment of students in high schools, colleges, and graduate schools; organization of leisure-time avocations or hobbies by groups and individuals of every type and in every subject; and finally, by the general tendency of the American people to prepare themselves more carefully in the knowledge of their daily vocations, to read more

¹ From a paper presented at the Second International Congress of Libraries and Bibliography, held at Madrid, Spain, May, 1935.

widely for general culture, and to encourage research in the industrial, civic, and economic problems which face each community and the organizations within it.

It doubtless could be proved that American libraries have definitely influenced the whole movement through their services and their publicity. The writer has the conviction that the long campaign in this direction, on the part of many American public libraries, large and small, has made America more and more book conscious, increased the number of readers, given the public new reading interests, notably raised the quality of books borrowed, still more notably increased the volume and personal helpfulness of reference work done, and built up between this public institution and its constituents an understanding that on both sides is most cordial, appreciative, and helpful.

But someone else could just as easily prove that, because high-school education has become more nearly universal, because colleges, high schools, and even grade schools have changed their methods of teaching and now advocate supplementary required reading, reading for honors, projects and reports, instead of the old single textbook, the heavy demand for library books has resulted from such causes. Others could doubtless prove that it is the publishers, with their widespread "high-power" advertising, who have had the paramount influence.

It might be taken as a principle that public libraries have a constant definite obligation to influence public opinion toward reading and study. They should discover effective means to this end. Some of these methods to interest the public at large in books and reading will be reviewed in this paper before considering the devices which libraries are using to develop intensive and scholarly work on the part of a larger and larger proportion of the public. Much could be said as to the need for a co-operative campaign by publishers, booksellers, and librarians to keep the idea of books and the pleasures of reading always before the public.

The public library's obligation is not primarily in the one direction of intensive service to a selected few, but is equally in

the direction of attracting, serving, and stimulating many thousands of men, women, and young people who have not yet come to "purposeful reading" but are still satisfied with recreational reading, sometimes of a far from meritorious character.

In the United States, social classes are not plainly demarked. Americans take pride in the fact that no matter how humble a man's birth, occupation, home, or economic status, he is fully as deserving of social and intellectual encouragement and reward as are his more fortunate brothers in what might be called the upper levels of society. So-called "workers' education" is an unfamiliar term; it has made little headway in the United States because with us (a) "workers" are not a separate and defensive type as they are abroad; (b) they have only an emotional and only a slight study interest in current economics and sociology. "Workers' classes" (i.e., non-clerical or non-professional workers), except where locally and temporarily stimulated, are a rare phenomenon.² Charles Compton, assistant librarian at St. Louis, in his book *Who reads what?* explodes the theory that there is a "proletariat" as such in America, so far as intellectual interest is concerned, and shows that the humblest worker, even unskilled, may be reading some of the greatest books, even Greek and Roman classics. Abroad the same holds true, and American librarians find that immigrants are often the most appreciative readers of really substantial literature. As Mr. C. Seymour Thompson says,³ it is "undeniable evidence for one all-important conclusion: that we can safely predicate no probabilities whatever from a person's parentage, training, environment, or occupation, and very few from his previous reading, as to what he will or will not read with pleasure and with profit. That is why librarianship, in its advisory service to readers, is an art, and not a science."

At Syracuse, New York, the library has in addition to the 13,500 "student" borrowers, 1,686 stenographers, 596 machin-

² See Morse A. Cartwright, *Ten years of adult education* (Macmillan, 1935), pp. 198-202.

³ "Library books reviewed—*Who reads what?*" *Library journal*, LX (January 15, 1935), 65.

ists, 622 nurses, 796 bookkeepers, 155 carpenters, 80 locomotive engineers, as well as public officers, beauty-parlor employees, letter-carriers, evangelists, tree surgeons, X-ray technicians, food-checkers, window-trimmers, and glass-bevelers, among the army of miscellaneous workers. Similar facts are recorded from many libraries.

The writer would protest against overemphasizing either of the two parallel major purposes of the public library. He would make it a part of the philosophy of this paper that the public library's function is a dual one: (*a*) to attract and serve the upper intellectual group who may be doing purposeful and intensive reading or scholarly research work; and (*b*) to attract and serve the average man or woman passing by, or visiting the ten-cent store, or living in mean streets, or the man in better circumstances, at the window of his club, whose intellectual curiosity has been dulled, but who may yet be led to get some of the beauty and pleasure and inspiration from books, if librarians will only take heed. Library workers cannot justly concentrate their attentions and affections on either clientèle or service to the exclusion of the other.

In fact, it is essential that public libraries, supported largely by community taxes, give much more attention to looking over their fellow-citizens as a large group of individuals, and to analyzing and understanding the intellectual interests and needs of people who do not yet come to the libraries, than to devoting themselves exclusively to the needs of any one special group. Should not library service start and be constantly in touch with studies of prospective readers themselves, nothing less than 100 per cent of the population of the community?

Of the two diagrams in Figure 2, the first was prepared by the writer in 1913.⁴ At that time, for a typical city, about 20 per cent of the population (*A*) was registered as library borrowers. After deducting the five sections at the foot of the column, namely, the illiterate (*G*), and those too young (*F*), then all those who find it difficult to get at library books (*E*), or do not have a sufficiently driving desire to use books at all (*D*), or can-

⁴ *Ibid.*, XXXIX (1914), 260.

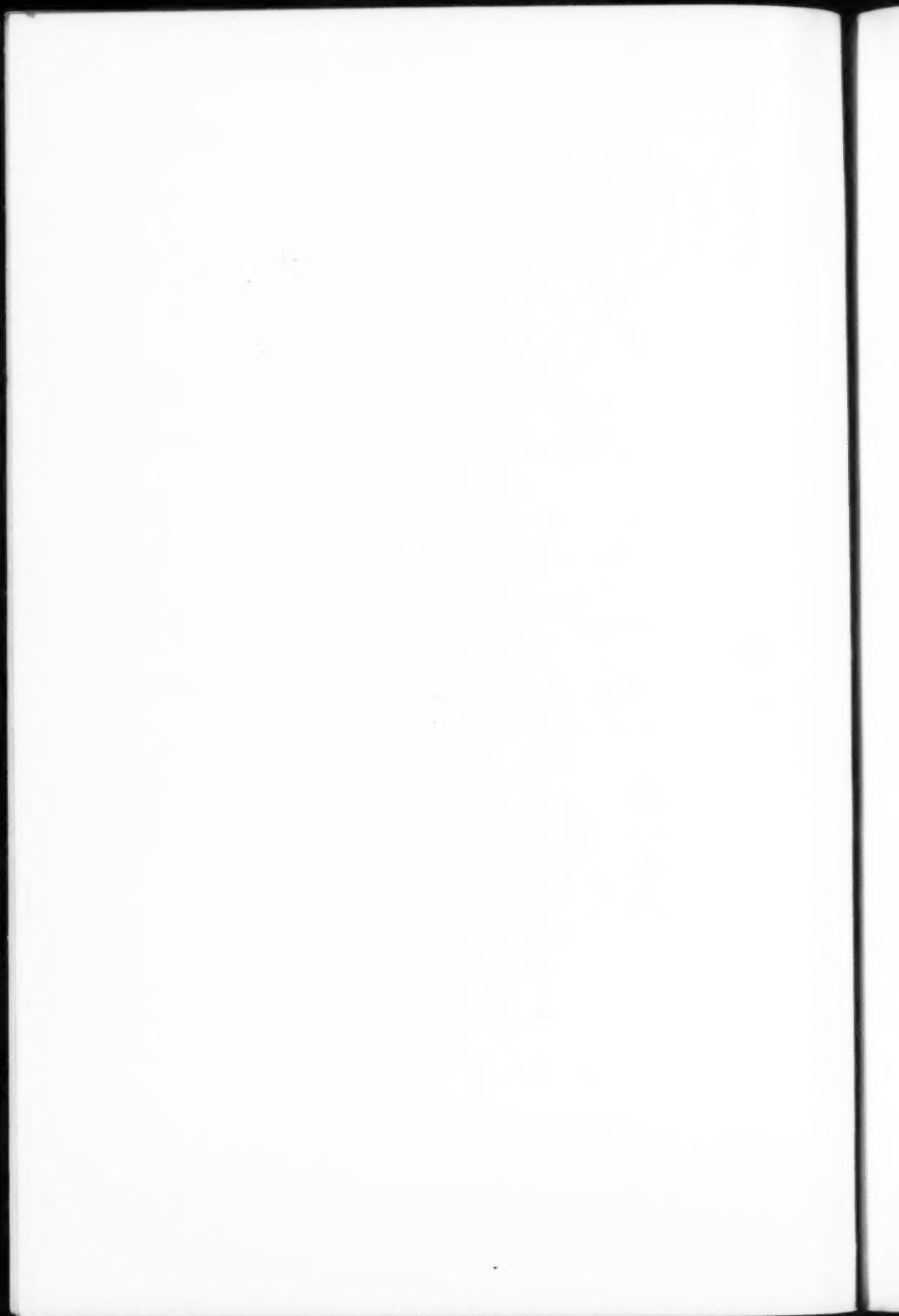


Photo by A. Aubrey Bodine

FIG. 1.—FORGOTTEN MEN IN MEAN STREETS

The public librarian's function is to get good books into these homes, as well as to encourage purposeful book use among professional and literary persons. He will not spend too much time dandling the idol of scholarship on his knee, whispering fondly to it of his devotion, while people in mean streets who have an equal claim to the library's affection and attention are being neglected.





not find the time to read (C), there were still 40 per cent of the people of a community who might be, but had not become, active library users, with their own borrowers' cards.

It might well be argued, and is admitted, that these percentages were only estimates (except item A) and had little scientific basis. The segment, "No desire for books," for example,

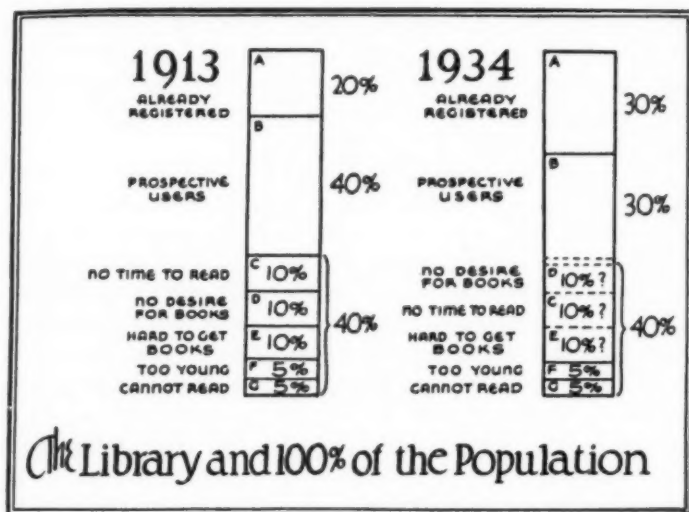


FIG. 2

might be as large as anyone wished to make it; its definition is elastic and it would overlap to some extent the 40 per cent of prospective users. Miss Miriam Tompkins⁵ estimates that "Perhaps half of our adult population have practically no book reading habits. They are non-readers so far as the library is aware. Their reading efficiency is too limited for the majority of the books on the Felsenthal list." Her article divides all readers into five ability groups, and the group (3) of medium ability represents those who can read books from Miss Emma Felsen-

⁵ "What is a readable book?" *Booklist* (American Library Association), XXX (March, 1934), 195-97.

thal's very excellent list of *Readable books in many subjects* (American Library Association, 1929).

Librarians are not too well aware of this section of the population which is not reached: "Apparently," says Librarian Kaiser at Oakland, "we attract now largely these who belong to the higher reading levels and shall have to catch our lower grade readers before we can experiment with them." And Mrs. Jennings at St. Paul, Minnesota, says: "I do not think that we have done enough in this particular field to be worth mentioning." Let us all be as frank. If only one-half the population can read library books, perhaps our total of 60 per cent actual and prospective users is miscalculated.

But the point is that with the creation of a mass of much-needed, simple, attractive, high-grade literature, perhaps another 10 per cent could be weaned from the funnies, the sport page, and the squawking (not the sound, but the mental effect) radio to useful, consistent, pleasurable reading. That people can and will read something is shown by a table resulting from an intensive study in a congested section of New York City.⁶ In it the reading habits of the population over fifteen years of age were estimated as follows: 80 per cent read newspapers; 50 per cent read cheap story magazines; 10-20 per cent, novels from rental libraries; 10-15 per cent, non-fiction magazines; 20 per cent read library books.

Obviously the task is to provide better substitutes for poor reading and to have in our libraries material that is worthy, even though it may not take the usual form of bound trade books.

In the last twenty years there have also been obvious changes in two other segments of the foregoing diagram. Here again it is possible only to estimate. The amount of leisure time available has greatly increased for practically the whole population. The segment, "Hard to get books," has been decreased, because in these same typical communities which have public libraries,

⁶ D. Waples, "Community studies in reading: I. Reading in the Lower East Side," *Library quarterly*, III (1933), 1-20.

twenty years have brought an increase of branches, stations, and other distributing points for library books.

Nevertheless, the contrast between the diagrams of 1913 and of 1934 is most encouraging. It shows that in the average of typical cities the figure has jumped from 20 to 30 per cent for average registration, while (as shown by the statistics following) per capita book use has doubled. American libraries may credit themselves with having extended their service to a fourth of those "candidates" whom they should have reached

TABLE I

	PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION REGISTERED		CIRCULATION PER CAPITA	
	1914 or 1915	1933 or 1934	1914 or 1915	1933 or 1934
Cities of 200,000 and upward		1933—27.5†	1915—2.8	1933—6.0†
Cities of 75,000—199,000.		1933—30.5‡		1933—6.6‡
Illinois cities (50,000—110,000)	1914—14.2*	1932—32.6§	1914—3.2*	1932—8.2§
Illinois cities (15,000—50,000)	1914—27.6*	1932—39.9§	1914—3.3*	1932—7.3§

* Illinois State Library, Extension Commission, 1915.

† *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXVIII (1934), 249.

‡ American Library Association public library statistics. Cities with population between 100,000 and 199,000, 1933. Mimeographed report.

§ Illinois State Library, Extension Division, *Statistics of the libraries of Illinois*, 1932.

|| Public Library of the District of Columbia, *Annual report*, 1916, p. 28.

twenty years ago, but had not. Instead of being satisfied with this gain, they may well inquire just what is to be the program for the years ahead in reaching other possible users. For the modern public library has very definitely this function of continually drawing more persons into the circle of book use.

The figures of library registration and circulation are worth presenting (Table I):

The cities and towns of various sizes (Table II) are only a few which have gone far beyond the average. They offer inspiring examples as to what can be done under certain conditions. And there are numerous smaller coherent residential communities where the book use exceeds these examples.

What community conditions, or library services, make possible such high enrolment of the population in certain cities and towns? Some of them obviously have to do with the general intellectual status of the community, as, for example, the high proportion of intellectual workers concentrated in the national capital city of Washington; or the large groups of leisured persons, enjoying years of retirement, as in the Pacific coast cities of San Diego and Los Angeles; the high general cultural interest

TABLE II

SPECIAL CITIES	REGISTRATION PER POPULATION (PERCENTAGE)		CIRCULATION PER CAPITA	
	1914 or 1915	1933 or 1934	1914 or 1915	1933 or 1934
Springfield, Mass.....	1915—30*	1934—42.7§	1915—7.9*	1934—16.8§
Providence, R.I.....	1915—13*	1933—40	1915—1.2*	1933—6.8
Fort Wayne and Allen County.....	†	1933—46.7**	1915—2.3†	1933—8.1**
Cleveland, Ohio.....	1915—26*	1933—37	1915—4.9*	1933—10.9
Westfield, Mass.....	1910—21.7‡	1934—43.8‡	1910—3.6‡	1934—15.6‡
Flint, Mich.....		1933—45.8**		1933—10.4**

* *American library annual, 1915-16.*

† Letter from Fort Wayne. (Registration in 1915 was for five-year period.)

‡ Westfield Athenaeum, *Annual report, 1934.*

§ Springfield city library, *Annual report, 1934.*

|| *Bulletin of the American Library Association, XXVIII (1935), 249.*

** American Library Association, public library statistics. Cities with population between 100,000 and 199,000, 1933. Mimeographed report.

and background, in cities like Springfield, Massachusetts, stimulated by strong institutions and societies, and by the presence of a large proportion of skilled labor of the specialized craft type. Many small residential towns of unified population type (e.g., Fort Wayne, Ind.), are in contrast to communities with concentrated uncultured groups, foreign backgrounds, colored, etc., whose individuals have not had equal opportunities. We note that in every one of these cases of exceptional results the library itself has a long-standing reputation for consistent, zealous, efficient service, and a policy of encouraging both the extensive and intensive aspects of its work. This description fits the great Cleveland library system, operating in a city of hetero-

geneous population of which a large proportion has an uncultured background.

The population background for library service is greatly in need of further study; little has been done, even after we include the highly valuable studies made at the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago, and elsewhere. It is not to the credit of the profession that such studies have been somewhat misunderstood and are not yet appreciated. True, at the beginning some were not soundly based on practical knowledge of library book stocks, or services, or administrative problems. The appended list (No. 1) shows some of the accomplishments of the last ten years.

The next aspect of the subject is of equal importance and has been equally ignored until recently. I refer to public dissatisfaction with library service. Thousands of men and women who have actually brought themselves to the decision to go to their library to borrow a book or to undertake some reading or study, cannot get what they wish in the form they wish at the time they need it. These dissatisfactions fall chiefly under the following four heads:

1. Most recreational, cultural, and informational books in libraries are too difficult for the average reader. The length and size of the books are forbidding, words too long, illustrations lacking, typography and appearance uninviting. If one were to take the hundred most outstanding characters in history, for example, and assemble the most popular books about each, he would quickly discover that for half these characters there is no book at once authoritative, written with literary skill and interesting to the average person who enters the butcher shop or the ten-cent store, the man who works with his hands in a factory or on the farm. Just why this should be so would warrant an interesting study in the psychology of authorship. Authors need not let themselves down to an uninspired state of mind in presenting an inspirational subject; this would defeat the purpose. In inspirational as well as in cultural and informational topics the author should try to express himself in words, terms, and ideas not too remote from the average man. Writers may

still have beauty, may charm and inspire; clarity and simplicity do not imply mediocrity. Distinction and atmosphere do not rule out definiteness and detail. The King James Bible and Lincoln's writings outweigh Henry James and Gertrude Stein. Libraries feel so constrained to pamper the literati with James Joyce and the current *poseurs*, that they overlook the solid folks who still appreciate plain common sense and the sincere outpouring of genius.

The difficulty of finding the desired books of a cultural sort is illustrated by three typical cases:

Pasteur, by Vallery-Radot, is too long, detailed, slow moving, too scientific for ordinary readers, whereas other attempts to popularize are amateurish and ineffective—not one meets the requirements.

Among an assorted carload of biographies of Abraham Lincoln, not one is exactly satisfactory. Sandburg's is too much embroidered with his own ideas, its vocabulary too elaborate and complicated, the whole life not covered. Nicolay's is too solid and lengthy. Dale Carnegie's has plenty of action but little literary value and many of the impressions given are superficial. No one with real genius, sufficiently moved by the facts and the man Lincoln, has subordinated himself in the great task of narrating and revealing the Lincoln story in easily understood language and present-day concepts and with true charm and style.

For general history we might discuss Wells's *Outline* which has sold so successfully. But this has been among the large group of readers on a level higher than that which we are considering. Van Loon's *Story of mankind* is most successfully presented—short words and sentences, units of time and progress of events emphasized by separating them. This book meets nearly every test, in spite of a certain self-conscious, annoying flippancy. Parsons' *Stream of history* is better sustained in treatment. Its defects are a certain overdetail and failure to show periods and developments distinctly enough. If read through with attention it leaves a truer and more coherent picture than Van Loon.

In the field of informational books, also, there is great lack of adequate material on hundreds of even the most important subjects. In the field of technology, for example, books are likely to be expensive, too long and elaborate, full of mathematical formulas—written, in short, for advanced, trained specialists. In many occupational subjects there is no satisfactory book. The mail-order houses have set a good example in their instructional pamphlets on plumbing and electric wiring. In fields where processes, machinery, and commodities are mentioned, American readers are misled and disappointed by having to read English books, or foreign books in translation. In other subjects, of course, such as the pure sciences, and certain hand crafts, the books published in other countries are no less useful and often much better than the American. In fact, as to format and style of presentation, America has nearly everything to learn about really worth-while books that will appeal to the uneducated adult.

If one goes through a few pages of the list of occupations enumerated in the *United States census*, such as power laundry work, machine woodworking, or the needle trades, he will find that on a large majority there is no adequate specific instruction for operators, based on current practice. On the other hand, H. D. Burghardt's *Machine tool operation* (2d ed., McGraw-Hill, 1919-22) and A. R. Bailey's *Handbook . . . for stationary, marine and Diesel engineers and firemen* (Goodheart-Willcox 1932), are handbooks which the ordinary worker finds practically helpful, possibly because these trades suppose a fairly high intelligence and concentration. So are the "Audel" manuals on electricity and the building trades.

The workman and the foreman in the paint, ceramics, and general chemical industries, have to depend on such highly technical studies as Maximilian Toch, *Chemistry and technology of paints* (Van Nostrand, 1925); A. B. Searle, *Clayworkers' handbook* (Lippincott, 1929); E. R. Riegel, *Industrial chemistry* (Chemical Catalog Company, 1933).

All are far over the heads of most men who work in overalls and even of the "white-collar" men who have had no technical

training, though Riegel is an especially excellent practical book for the next higher group of readers.

In a number of American libraries highly trained "readers' advisers," with unusual book knowledge, are available for the individual reader to consult. They talk fully with the reader and find out his individual difficulties and the types of books needed. Readers' advisory work is so large a subject that we cannot discuss it in this present paper. The part it may play in readers' help is very definitely enumerated in such statements as those by Charles W. Mason,⁷ Marjory Doud,⁸ and Jennie M. Flexner and Sigrid A. Edge,⁹ and that from the readers' adviser's office of the Cleveland public library, where special record cards have been provided to note (1) their efforts to analyze and distinguish various groups of readers, their education, race, age, interest, experience, etc., and (2) the type of books read and enjoyed by these readers, with their reactions to specific titles. Other cards record the efforts to analyze or distinguish reading ability of various groups. Both records bring out such difficulties as those in the mechanics of reading, lack of understanding, limited vocabularies, etc. To what point can a public library afford to go with this study of its individual patrons, except for occasional samples? The object, of course, is to provide more intelligently the correct type of reading, and ultimately to have new books and new types of material created.

2. Most library books are too long delayed in their arrival and availability. It is only within the last four or five years that many American public libraries have been making a concerted effort to come more promptly to their decisions on book selection, to secure advance copies of the books themselves, or find competent advance opinions, and to try, as special libraries are attempting, to have their books within their buildings and ready for the public on the same day that the books are available in the bookstores. Anything short of this service, at least as to books of timely importance or in popular demand, will be

⁷ Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, *Thirty-eighth annual report, 1933*, pp. 17-24.

⁸ *The Readers' advisory service of the St. Louis public library, 1929*.

⁹ *A Readers' advisory service* (American Association for Adult Education, 1934).

considered inexcusable at the end of another decade. Libraries will realize more and more that they are not holding their own with other agencies that dispense printed matter. In the annual reports of several libraries, beginning in 1929, mention has been made of the increasing attempt to speed up, a purpose which in no wise implies any lowering of standards.

3. There is the seemingly unavoidable lapse of time after books are actually received until they have been accessioned, classified, cataloged, etc. In many libraries a month or two passes before the books are on the shelves. Such delays are fatal to public satisfaction. Another decade will either stamp them out or place American libraries on the defensive. Inexpensive pamphlets, reports, bulletins, government documents on current economic, social, and civic problems, especially those which deal with some local question that interests the public at the moment, must be ordered, received, made ready, and publicized as though the library were competing with the newspaper or the bookstore. The American Library Association Committee on Documents, under the leadership of Dr. Kuhlman of the University of Chicago, is now making a survey with recommendations to simplify and quicken this part of library work. It has already published two yearbooks of great value, and should translate its results into a practical illustrated handbook of methods for small libraries.

4. Libraries are also severely criticized because they can find no way to have available nearly enough copies of popular new books to meet the peak demand. This demand rises rapidly at first publication, stimulated by reviewers' acclaim and by publisher's advertising. In three months it has subsided, generally, and in a year's time the curve is down close to zero. Just how to meet this sudden brief demand without a vast investment of public tax funds for short-lived books is a baffling question; possibly there is simply no answer to it. At the present time failure to get recent books is the major source of annoyance to the public. If there is no solution, then at least a campaign of education is indicated, so that the public may understand and be at least partially satisfied.

This problem of sufficient copies of worth-while fiction (and some non-fiction) goes along in the public mind with the more embarrassing one of refusing to supply what English librarians often refer to as "tripe." It raises the perennial question of the function of the American public library in supplying fiction of no earthly literary or cultural value. One way to settle it is to withdraw to an upper room, take out our little brass idol of "scholarship" and warm and dandle it on our knees, hoping that the world will notice our erudition and culture. Does this settle it? Meanwhile the public at large betakes itself to increasing numbers of commercial circulating libraries. If we are to keep the mass of American readers within the helpful constructive influence of our public library service, we will continue to look upon our function as that of supplying all the book needs of the people. We will nevertheless draw a line at the "tripe," but will give such prompt, full, interested, and sympathetic service on good current fiction that the public will depend on the public library. Public library rental collections are hardly anywhere developed to their full scale of operation; too few libraries look upon them as "on the main line." We shall consider the growth, the existence, of commercial libraries with their indiscriminate stock (in morals as well as literary values) not with complaisance, nor as an excuse for us to abdicate our trust, but as a reflection upon our effectiveness, a proof that we have placed false literary and intellectual values above the great social value of the public library. Our own library rejoices in having reduced the number of new fiction titles purchased to only two hundred and fifty a year. Perhaps we have gone too far. After traveling through England, large cities, and little villages, and seeing the appalling mass of "tripe" under the very nose of the whole nation in commercial "libraries," and the comparatively small public-library use of worthy fiction and non-fiction, one prays that American libraries may solve this problem wisely.

To these chief difficulties should be added many minor ones, such as those noted by Douglas Waples:¹⁰ the perplexities and

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, p. 13.

irritation of a card catalog, strangeness of subject headings, the inability to smoke, lack of reading privacy, distance to the library, time restrictions on loans, fines, inconvenience of library hours, distractions of the array of books on open shelves.

These specific difficulties do not bulk so large, however, as the general inarticulateness of the readers and a lack of sympathetic imagination on the part of some library assistants in interpreting these readers' wants. In several large libraries assistants are given instruction (at circulation department staff meetings, for example) on how to help readers clarify their desires and express themselves exactly as to what they wish from the library.

All of this suggests how essential is a comprehensive study of present and prospective library users, their backgrounds, attitudes, and desires, why they do and do not use the library and its books, and the difficulties they have in finding the types of material they need. What has been done and what specifically has not been done in this field?

Studies to date have been concerned with the analysis of the population groups using the library (foreign-born, white, and colored), and with the sex, occupation, and age grouping of registrants; the character of the community (industrial or residential; white-collar or professional population; good or bad housing; provisions for education and recreation); and with the area which a branch library serves. (See appended list, No. 1).

A self-survey of actual service in a library was made at Baltimore in April, 1935, partly occasioned by the preparation of this paper, partly as a basis for creating certain "aids to readers," which was the original topic of this paper, and partly to assemble definite facts on which to base a more insistent demand for increased library funds.

For five days adult readers in certain departments were asked to check a detailed questionnaire telling whether they did or did not get the desired material; if not, why; for what purpose they were going to use it; and whether or not they were familiar with the card catalog and such indexes as the *Readers' guide*. The 17,317 persons entering the central library included repeaters, so that only 8,430 questionnaires were returned. Of this number

68.4 per cent reported getting what they wanted, 26 per cent could not be satisfied, and 5.5 per cent found a satisfactory substitute. Disregarding the substitutes, 31.6 per cent could not get what they asked. Of these, 65.4 per cent found the book wanted was out, and 20.4 per cent found that the library did not have the book at all; i.e., practically 86 per cent of the 31.6 per cent who were disappointed could charge it up to lack of material, leaving only 4.4 per cent of the total number of patrons who were disappointed because of some shortcoming in the service itself.

Table III shows the general purposes which brought these 8,430 individuals to the central library and 2,007 individuals to five branches.

TABLE III.

	Central	Branches
High-school or college required reading..	24.4	27.9
To find out something about one's job...	10.5	3.0
For other serious reading.....	16.3	14.8
For relaxation or entertainment.....	33.9	52.8
Incomplete or other reasons.....	14.9	1.5

Approximately 7 per cent in the last group, judging from miscellaneous reasons given, would largely classify as serious reading. The rest did not report on this item. The total results show 50.2 per cent serious readers; 37.5 per cent seeking relaxation; and 12.3 per cent not reporting on this item.

Though approximately three-fifths of our readers claimed to be able to use the card catalog, we suspect that the number who can effectively use it is much less. One-fifth said they did not know how to use it. Only 28 per cent were familiar with the *Readers' guide*. On the subject of "tools" our inquiries were somewhat superficial; much more study of this phase of the library's work is evidently worth while. Many adult readers made a definite request for talks and printed guides to help them find their way in the library collection, notwithstanding the fact that as large a stock of "live" books is as easily and

simply available on the open shelves of this library as in any library in the country.

The records of this survey are being studied further. While results brought out strongly the need for many more duplicates in the book stock, both in technical and in recreational fields, they also show clearly the need for more individual help for the average reader if he is to get the full benefit of the material which is actually in the library but which he can only reach through the barrier of a complicated catalog, a confusing classification system, and general inexperience in getting at information buried within the covers of a book.

The true effectiveness of various departments in satisfying readers is, of course, not reflected by the superficial reading of the figures in Table IV.

The popular library, for example, has the impossible task of meeting fiction demands. Its returns in Table IV are somewhat misleading, because readers who came with no specific titles in mind, or with several fiction titles of which they found none, but did find some novel they liked, were classed as getting what they asked. This procedure, adopted to reduce the task of the recorders, and on the theory that readers are not as intent on specific books for leisure reading as for "purposeful" reading, made these figures inconsistent with, and higher than, the rest. The Baltimore self-survey reveals a situation doubtless typical of that in many other libraries. To the writer it indicates that though American libraries have gone far beyond the mechanical handing-out of books, and in some cases have been criticized for giving readers too much individual help, we are still far from meeting actual needs for reader help and must have more assistants, highly educated and trained. Further, that much inexpensive reader training and help in printed form should be supplied by all libraries to all their patrons is evident.

In many localities reader interests have been analyzed to determine the amount and character of the reading of different groups and the source of supply; the relation of reader interest to actual reading; the changing habits and tastes; subjects of greatest interest to certain groups; and the factors influencing

the choice of reading. We still lack sufficient data in most of these fields to arrive at any final conclusions. Techniques are still needed for further studies. An attempt is now being made to find some way of determining scientifically the reading interests of specific groups.

TABLE IV
BALTIMORE SERVICE SURVEY

DEPARTMENT	READERS	SUCCESS IN GETTING WHAT THEY CAME TO GET			OF THOSE NOT SATISFIED	
	Total Returns	Percentage Found What They Asked	Percentage Satisfactory Substitute	Percentage Not Satisfied	Percentage Because Books Were Out	Percentage Because Books Not in Library
Popular library.....	2,777	70.1	8.2	21.7	62.7	22.7
Industry and science.....	1,291	68.8	3.6	27.6	60.3	22.6
Business.....	471	68.6	2.7	28.7	79.7	13.5
Civics.....	502	62.1	5.4	32.5	65.2	25.3
Education.....	486	65.4	8.5	26.1	66.7	17.3
History, travel, and biography.....	1,048	64.3	4.1	31.6	77.8	11.7
Literature.....	736	61.8	5.9	32.3	72.9	17.8
Art.....	436	62.6	3.2	34.2	55.3	26.9
Maryland.....	94	78.7	2.1	19.2	50	30
Reference.....	589	84.5	1.9	13.6	35.1	25.3
Total central.....	8,430	68.4	5.5	26.1	65.4	20.4
Branch 5.....	311	59.5	5.5	35	54	35.7
Branch 7.....	498	78.3	5.4	16.3	50	33.3
Branch 11.....	490	73.5	11.4	15.1	50	43.8
Branch 12.....	275	61.8	8	30.2	59.1	36.2
Branch 13.....	433	61.4	11.1	27.5	69.5	29.3
Total branch.....	2,007	68.3	8.5	23.2	57.4	35.4
Grand total.....	10,437	68.3	6.1	25.6	63.9	23.2

When all this is done, however, it will only emphasize, no doubt, the lack of suitable reading materials for many groups and types of mind now neglected. There are many librarians (the writer is one) who hope that further studies of this type, expensive of both time and money, will be planned only in consultation with librarians.

The great educational foundations in America are interested

in "the provision of printed materials for adult education." The term "adult education" in America means one thing to formal educators: they conceive it only in terms of group or class instruction. To librarians it includes that indeed, but it means also the reading and study of books by individual men and women prompted largely by their own initiative and persevering without the aid of class or group stimulation.

Charles W. Eliot, Harvard's famous president, has said, "Our youth should read, read, read. Science may facilitate the use of the senses in acquiring knowledge—through motion pictures and the radio. But I do not believe these will supplant the surest process of instruction—reading." The bulk, the intensiveness, and the effectiveness of this self-education easily surpasses that of the comparatively small numbers herded into classrooms and counted.

In this matter of "provision of printed materials" librarians as well as workers in the field of formal and informal adult education have long been concerned with the dearth of material. The Sub-Committee on Readable Books of the American Library Association is responsible for two commendable lists in the attempt to find books which can approximately be called readable for the average reader (the "Hoit" and "Felsenthal" lists). (See list No. 2, appended.) But a glance through these makes even more evident the small number of really readable books available in many subjects. To define the problem more clearly the committee has prepared a list of references as to "Some specifications for readable books."¹¹

A recent conference on this subject, participated in by representatives of adult education, libraries, and publishers, brought out the fact that a small amount of material of the desired sort is now available in ten-cent stores and on newsstands, largely overlooked by librarians. It was also noted that on the continent such literature is much more available. The American Library Association *Booklist* for 1933 ("Seventy good ten-cent

¹¹ See *Booklist*, XXXI, No. 9 (May, 1935), 281-82, and *What makes a book readable* (University of Chicago Press, 1935), by Dr. William S. Gray of the University of Chicago, who has studied the elements contributing to readability.

books," pp. 25-28) lists a long series of juvenile books in ten-, fifteen-, twenty-five-, and fifty-cent editions, some of them beautifully done in colors.¹² The same development is due for simplified adult books. The encouragement of more good titles and of better typography and illustrations for the chosen texts would make a desirable program for some organization or foundation to foster. For adult literature the material ranges from dollar and other inexpensive reprints of more expensive fiction and non-fiction titles, down to five- and ten-cent titles too cheap in appearance and quality to warrant inclusion in any library, but having enormous sales. Two excellent collections of adult poetry can be bought in ten-cent stores. A series of hobby pamphlets, published by Leisure League of America, New York, at twenty-five cents each, partially meets our specification: not too long, simply and well written and illustrated. The English art-craft booklets published by *Studio* are similar in style and purpose.

That a score of different booklets are selling so actively from newsstands and drug stores may justify the hope that we may rise some glorious morning and somehow see with astonished eyes:

- Attractively printed thin books on 500 subjects
- About 125 to 150 pages, 5×7 to 6×9 inches
- One-third of the space given to illustrations, well explained by long captions
- Plenty of drawings and diagrams (if subject warrants)
- Written by authorities
- Simple vocabulary
- Short paragraphs
- Enthusiastic, active style and feeling
- Literary value and inspiring tone when subject warrants
- Vital enough to influence people's thoughts for years to come
- Bound or board covers designed to give dignity and appeal
- Sold everywhere for not over twenty-five cents
- Permanently financed to pay for adequate writing and illustrating, and for continuous promotion and revision

¹² See also "The Ten-cent juvenile," *Publishers' weekly* CXXVI (1934), 1745; and "Rural schools in Alabama get ten-cent books," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXIX, No. 3 (March, 1935), 153-54.

A thorough search would discover little literature that meets the foregoing requirements. The "genius" who edits such a series must have a rare combination of abilities; specify them for yourself!

That one public library appreciates the value of simplified material, not in bound book form, is shown by the excellent mimeographed list, "Readable pamphlets on subjects of general interest," Cleveland, 1934—twelve pages of titles on current economic issues and thirteen pages on self-education for vocations, for the home-maker, and in cultural fields. This list shows what can be done to call such material to public attention.

One of the methods for better book service is the daily administrative problem of correlating book interests among various departments of a library so as to benefit the reader most completely.

Under ideal conditions there is what one might call a "circle of interest," which links together the minds of all who have anything to do with the new library book, from the moment its title is discovered in some advance announcement or advertisement or review until it is in the reader's hands. At the first moment a curiosity is aroused that continues until those responsible have gathered, from reviews, advertisements, and other sources, sufficient knowledge to (a) compare it with other books on the same subject, (b) forecast the probable usefulness of the new volume, (c) decide before it has been seen whether to order the new book, at least on approval. If kept, it is then accessioned and added to the collection and passes through the process of classifying and cataloging, and at last reaches the public.

We may well stop and look back over this series of processes and the number of different minds which have contributed their part. The question is, have they all been connected; has the knowledge cumulated and come intact and in full to the readers? Though one person may discover a title, several may gather the facts about it, make a comparison of quality and scope, and help to decide whether the book is worth having. At that point the order department routines intervene. Unless precaution is

taken the initiator may lose touch with the book and overlook in the pressure of other duties the volume he asked for. This recital suggests the value of placing the responsibility of book selection on those who are to use the books with the public. An administrative librarian who cannot possibly keep in touch with borrowers and students, or a group of book selectors detached from the public, can hardly carry on this work adequately, though in the writer's mind such a librarian must himself be a voluminous reader and student and be familiar with the new



FIG. 3

books, their announcements and reviews, their publishers and prices, and the response of readers to them—in short, a librarian must assuredly be acquainted with his own stock in trade, must set aside a certain portion of his time for books, and must keep the balance, correct eccentricities, prevent delays, and assure himself of economies. In this, as in all other parts of the library's work, he must assure himself not only of mere economies in buying, but of the prompt availability of books and their fullest usefulness in the community.

"The circle of interest" (Fig. 3) involved in all this is in most libraries only a theoretical one. But even in the order and catalog departments the workers should have their imaginations trained to envision the possibilities of each new book, so that

they may understand the comparative need for promptness in getting the book through the process and call it to the attention of such assistants, other than the originating department head, as might have special interest in it.

At the public catalog of the larger library, and at the general service desk in the smaller one, the person on duty must be cognizant of the arrival of the book ready for use, and the more he personally knows about it the greater is the appreciation and the wider the use of the book by readers. For this reason a number of libraries add to their catalog cards clipped or typed summaries or extracts from reviews.

Every means of instruction for the reader on how to use the public catalog, and how to find the books and make the most of them, adds immeasurably to the satisfaction he gets from the library. For this reason many of the larger libraries in the United States have another contact point with the public, namely, their information desk. This, while usually combined with the functions of the catalog assistant, has the more specific duty of seeing that readers do not go out of the library without having been personally asked whether they found what they wished. It may be safely predicted that services of these types will be increasingly common; their absence is one of the weaknesses in public library service in America and abroad.

Even these services, however, are not the end. By the mere mechanics of listing new titles in weekly or monthly bulletins, posted in the library, or sent out in inexpensive mimeographed form, or printed in elaborate bulletins or in the newspapers, the great mass of readers have their attention called in a somewhat wholesale manner to new titles and new realms of knowledge.

At several libraries, e.g., Cleveland, Los Angeles, Newark, Washington, and Boston, there is a constant production and distribution of carefully selected and appetizingly annotated book-lists on a diversity of subjects. Such lists, discriminating, more attractive, and on a far more extensive scale of production and distribution, will become a regular part of American public library service within another decade. Why, for example, should the enormous investment of money, time, and book knowledge

that is hidden away in that great volume, *The Standard catalog for public libraries, 1934*, lie practically idle so far as the public is concerned, when it might be split into little two- or four-page lists on a thousand different subjects, and handed to tens of thousands of readers who without such guidance stand in awe and confusion before the miscellaneous array of books on library shelves?

It is significant and surprising that the two persons best known to American readers for their "practical" book knowledge are not connected with libraries at all. Miss Bessie Graham's *Bookman's manual* is used in most library schools and in the training of bookstore clerks. Mrs. May Lamberton Becker, who conducts the "Readers' guide" question column in the *New York herald tribune books*, gives sound advice every week to hundreds of inquirers as to the best books on the greatest variety of topics. It is greatly to be hoped that within the near future such services may be looked upon as a primary function of public libraries.

To recapitulate, the circle of knowledge and information and interest in books cannot be rounded out to full effectiveness unless each of those persons who have had a part in the total transaction transmits her enthusiasm, her curiosity, her knowledge, her imagination as to the usefulness of a book, through departmental walls, to every other involved, and until finally this accumulation of knowledge, suggestion, and stimulation is passed on to the reader himself. For him everything has been created and operated, as the final recipient of all these materials and services, for which he pays.

Up to this point this paper has brought out the fact that as yet less than half of America's potential book-using population is enrolled for library use, that prospective and actual readers are seriously handicapped by certain library attitudes, by delays in getting material promptly into use, by the impossibility of having sufficient copies of popular new books. It has also noted the systematic studies already made, of cultural back-

grounds, capabilities, and attitudes of those who do and who do not use libraries, their individual needs as to services and material, their encouragement by the production of more appropriate material. Finally, it has called for organization within each library of a continuous interest in each new book, shared by all who play any part in its preparation. It has suggested an equally lively interest in individuals who compose the vast non-library using public.

The title of the paper implied that the emphasis should be on a survey of the methods now actually followed by libraries in instructing their present inexperienced readers who ask for help as to the resources and facilities now actually available—truly a fascinating subject. We shall review a large mass of material gathered from a request sent to libraries in cities of 200,000 and upward and selected smaller cities. In a sense it represents a typical cross-section of public library service and methods in the United States, except that in smaller communities smaller staffs make such devices and procedures less common. Here again one may imagine the excellent results from having the state commissions or the national association (through permanent adequate funds) supply these thousands of smaller libraries with material such as we shall now review, in a simple and more general form.

We are not attempting to cover what is called "general library publicity," the information issuing from American libraries to their newspapers or in the form of exhibits, circulars, or otherwise, the publicity that has to do with the finances, administration, and problems of the library as an institution. That is another subject.

It would take a goodly volume to summarize the effective devices which a number of American libraries are using that do come definitely under the title of this paper—devices to help readers in using the resources of the library after they get there.

First of all there are library book-lists. Even these we shall not take up in detail, and it is essential to remember that distribution to prospective users is just as important a function as the making of book-lists. The mass of lists published by Ameri-

can libraries within a single year on all manner of subjects is so great that one wonders why libraries do not combine on co-operative lists usable by all. Twenty years of correspondence with American librarians indicates that many are not interested in the distribution of book-lists, no matter how excellent, unless prepared in their own institutions—a strange attitude, truly, but gradually disappearing, while co-operative lists are becoming more and more common.

While the preparation and distribution of such book-lists certainly comes within the scope of this paper and may be considered one of the primary functions of public libraries, the subject is better studied through actual examples than by generalizations in a paper like the present.¹³ Librarians can see that readers need guidance on book selection every day if we watch their struggles at the shelves, confronted by the vast array of old, uninteresting, or second-rate books which every library must perforce buy. A study of the lists produced each year leads inevitably to the conclusion that short lists, from ten to twenty-five titles, with inviting descriptive notes and attractive typography, are most effective. Further developments of significance in this field will doubtless be in the direction of centralized preparation and publishing of lists on four or five hundred different subjects in greatest demand, both cultural and practical.

Our survey confines itself to the intensive instruction given to present and prospective readers as to the materials they can find at the library, but of which they are not aware, or do not know how to make use of when found. All of this can be taken up under three headings:

1. Instruction of young people, in and out of school, in the use of books and libraries
2. General instruction of adults in the same subjects
3. Publicity and instruction for adult students as to the library's book collection and its reference services and tools.

¹³ Three members of the Baltimore library staff are working on a manual on *Booklists and bibliographies; their editing, annotation and typography*.

I. INSTRUCTION OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN THE USE OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES

A generation of school children well instructed in the use of books and libraries and instilled with the joy of reading will produce a future clientèle of active adult library users. This statement, so often made by librarians, must be seriously qualified, for the fact is that a considerable proportion of young people, even in good library communities, do not get across the gulf of upper high school to resume public library use in adult years. The psychological reasons for this are still unexplored. During the last few years instruction in the use of libraries, given to pupils in the public and private schools of America, has developed to an extent nothing short of surprising, and in general it is of high quality. In some cities the instruction is given by the board of education through its school libraries and English teachers; in others by the public library, either through the school libraries which it may maintain, or by classes visiting at the neighboring branch libraries, or through material the public library provides for teachers in the junior and senior high schools to include in their regular English courses. The organization of this instruction depends on the general relationship between the public library and the public-school system, and especially upon who operates and directs the school libraries. In several cities, where it has been initiated by the public library, it has eventually been taken over and made a part of the public-school course of instruction. With the spread of required standards, and the supervision of school libraries by state units, it seems only a few years distant when the topic will be included as a college entrance requirement. It is highly desirable that librarians take active steps to bring about this result. It seems logical that those who have been taught in school how to read, should be instructed in the methods and materials that will help them to keep on reading and learning as long as they live.

Universal instruction concerning books, children's literature, and the use of libraries is another goal to be won as soon as possible in all teacher-training institutions.

A splendid example of this work is the twenty-three page pamphlet, *Outline and instruction in the use of books and libraries*, in the Cleveland public schools, published by the public library for the board of education in 1929. This is carefully arranged by grades, the material presented according to the capacity of the children, working up from a second-grade pupil's first visit to the library, when he gets a borrower's card, through the parts of the book, title-page, index, the making of the book, the classification and arrangement of books and the library, the use of dictionary and card catalog, encyclopedias, the magazine and other indexes, the more advanced reference books, atlases, yearbooks, handbooks, and the like. The faculty of one of the Cleveland high schools has published a sizable book, *Study mastery*, and in this are several chapters on the use of reference books and reading habits. A scenario and film form a definite part of the instruction given. The Introduction reads, "This picture is designed to show you the resources of our school library and to help you find material in preparing your daily work and to use books speedily and easily." A generation of instruction of this sort will make quite a different "book population" from which to draw adult library-users.

Many cities are doing similar work. Newark was one of the pioneers, its classes of 1904 giving rise to Marjorie Gilson's *Course of study* in 1910, which was elaborated into the one hundred and thirty-five page *How to use a library: a course of study* by Louise Connolly, published in 1917. This forms the basis for the courses still given in the Newark schools. Los Angeles has a "library hour" for every class above the second grade at least once a term; the primary aim is "to establish an association with books which will be life long." An extensive list¹⁴ gives a partial idea of the great variety of material already in use in different localities; some prepared by the public library, some by the school library groups, some by committees of regular classroom teachers. The subject is so elaborate that the

¹⁴ Anna McCague, "References on teaching the use of books and libraries," *Wilson bulletin*, VIII, No. 2 (October, 1933), 96-101. A list of newer material is in preparation at the Teachers College Library, Columbia.

School library year books of the American Library Association have included several articles on principles and methods of teaching the subject, and the placement of different subjects at proper grade levels.

The German cartoon reproduced in the *Bulletin of the American Library Association* for May, 1935 (p. 238), is typical of some excellent pictorial material which French, Russian, and Czechoslovakian libraries have developed to give their younger readers an enthusiastic interest in the use of books and libraries. Boston, Baltimore, and perhaps other American libraries have made a beginning in this direction (see Fig. 4).



FIG. 4.—One of Baltimore's picture strips (begun in 1933) for explaining the library and its services to young people.

2. GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS TO ADULTS IN LIBRARY USE

The mass and effectiveness of this instruction for young people suggests the question as to what is being done similarly for adult readers. The answer is, very little. It is an error to think that instruction of juveniles will ever take the place of instruction of adults. Even those who had the advantage of library instruction in their youth require additional explanation and aids in their more pressing adult book needs, and from an adult viewpoint. The lack of suitable material of instruction for them is widespread and keenly felt. No concerted effort has been made to meet it through national or state units. A splendid opportunity exists for a national organization, such as the American Library Association, or the General Federation of Women's Clubs, to prepare and publish a pamphlet or series of leaflets of instruction in library procedure as it directly concerns the adult borrower, especially women's civic and business men's

clubs. Such a pamphlet or series of leaflets would naturally explain the Decimal Classification, the use of the card catalog, indexes, the leading reference works, and the reference tools common to the average library.⁴⁵

How to use the card catalog is a less detailed but most useful leaflet, published by the Public Library of the District of Columbia. The general catalog is explained briefly, and the call numbers and their meaning as to location within the building, while the information on the cards is analyzed so as to bring out its value, and the significance of the special cases of entry; e.g., Bible, government documents, history and its subdivisions are all explained. In the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh a sign is placed over the card catalog, explaining its arrangement and giving instruction for its use. The desire to develop public ability to use the card catalog is evident among American libraries in general, for the three leading library-supply companies sell printed placards of brief explanation to be placed on any library's card cabinet.

Several individual libraries have published leaflets of information for borrowers, giving the rules of the library, especially as it applies to the borrowing of books. St. Louis has a leaflet, *Information for readers*, which gives general rules as to borrowing; similar excellent pamphlets describe the functions, services, and location of the various departments, not as parts of a building, but as the source of personal help to readers. The Boston Public Library's sixteen-page pamphlet *How to find and procure a book* is exceedingly well done—a model of carefully worded instruction. At least one library has carried on a series of public lectures, well attended, on "Making the most of books," with competent college professors and library-staff members discussing how to develop reading skills, methods of study, and the most worth-while books in various fields.

⁴⁵ The Junior Members' Round Table of the American Library Association is organizing a large-scale project to prepare such materials for general use among library patrons.

3. PUBLICITY AND INSTRUCTION AS TO BOOK COLLECTIONS AND REFERENCE SERVICES AND TOOLS

The general instruction for both young people and adults represents the worthy attempt of many American libraries to reach *en masse* the crowds of prospective or present patrons, helping them to become familiar with the library and its ways, and to make a first approach to really intensive book use.

We now come to our final topic, in many ways the most interesting of all, namely, the attempt to encourage more real study and research work not only among professional and scholarly persons, but among a larger and larger portion of the general adult public. This high purpose of American libraries has been emphasized only during the last few years, and the methods followed are still in their early stages.

Many librarians and library workers have overlooked the fact that out of the thousands of their present library borrowers, only a very few of even the best readers (college professors, for instance) know anything about library reference services and reference tools. Many of these tools, for example the 1934 edition of *Webster's new international dictionary*, or the *Standard catalog for public libraries* in its complete edition, or the *Dictionary of American biography*, or any one of a score of other reference tools, have behind them stories of purpose, effort, and achievement nothing short of exciting and inspiring. The public at large would be interested in these accomplishments, so typical of modern organized co-operative scholarship. Libraries may well capitalize the publicity value of their reference services and tools to a greater extent. Until the huge mass of reference material now in public libraries is advertised, described, and made known to the general public, our reference work will by no means reach its possibilities.

Instruction of the public in reference aids begins with general publicity to attract and inform. Some of the large American libraries have done outstanding work in this direction. Los Angeles maintains poster exhibits and bulletin boards in each of

the central library departments and in the branches as well, displaying new reference aids and tools. A special study of reference aids was made by the central library departments, resulting in a series of exhibits to illustrate the most important tools, and, also, the reference materials which the public might otherwise overlook, such as pamphlets, government bulletins, and reports of public units and organizations. The Los Angeles exhibits had a dual purpose. They informed the public about this material, but they also helped to secure adequate special funds and endowments for building up the collections in specialized fields.

As a part of a "know your library" exhibit, held at the New-ark library in 1934, a number of reference tools were displayed with beautifully printed placards of explanation. Those for the *Oxford dictionary* and the highly specialized "Engineering index service" were especially effective.

In a "know-our-city week," another city's chamber of commerce arranged for demonstrations by manufacturers in store windows in the shopping section. Hearing of this, the library requested space to show its function as a "producer of ideas" and was granted two of the largest department-store windows. In one the library set up and operated its own printing press, turning out book-lists and other library publicity, given to the customers of the store.

The other window was devoted to an exhibit of the library's reference service. An assistant from the library was on duty at a desk equipped with telephone, surrounded by shelves of various reference books. As the imitation inquiry came in over the telephone—"What is the name and address of a straw hat manufacturer in Corfu, Greece?"—a placard prepared beforehand was placed on the display rack so the sidewalk audience could see just what kind of questions come to the library. The assistant, after noting the question and looking over her stock of tools, tried two or three different books without success and then placed a copy of *Kelly's directory of merchants, manufacturers and shippers* on the display rack, and above it a placard giving its title. She then ran her finger down the columns of the

pages until she came to the correct name and address. A third placard gave the answer to the question. Other inquiries came in one after another over the telephone, and the assistant in the same manner looked up the information in the correct books. Each step was explained by carefully lettered placards made ready in advance. Thousands of persons who stopped for some moments to watch the exhibit were made aware for the first time that this type of service was rendered by the library from which many of them had been borrowing books for years, without ever using its reference department.

In another library window exhibits were shown of vertical file material—pamphlets, documents, etc.—with colored ribbons running from the piece of printed matter in the vertical file down to the explanatory placards placed in the foreground of the window.

There are many other devices to let the general public know about reference tools and the ability of the library to help students. Such are the circulars describing reference tools in detail. The Cleveland library has a pamphlet, *Using the library*, explaining what may be found in encyclopedias, dictionaries, and the specialized type of reference books, such as statistical handbooks, atlases, volumes of formulas, quotations, and brief biographies. This pamphlet explains also the use of magazine indexes. Cleveland issues a separate leaflet, *How to find technical facts*, explaining reference aids in the field of technology and applied arts. The Public Library of the District of Columbia in its *Guides to information* enumerates similar reference aids.

After examining these samples we cannot escape the familiar question as to why a hundred or five hundred libraries do not join in producing an attractive illustrated handbook or series of leaflets on the use of the most common reference tools, and distribute it free and freely.¹⁵ It is not difficult to predict some such outcome from the increasing interest in this aspect of American library work. Nor can we help imagining the many steps which remain to be taken in helping students of a more scholarly type in using library resources—the preparation of brief manuals for

technical, historical, social, and literary research and how to go about it; how to prepare bibliographies and how to use them. Most college professors are practically helpless in this respect, and the time and motion lost by their graduate students is appalling. A ten-day intensive course in bibliographic method would not be amiss in every graduate school. Systematic attempts to meet this national need will doubtless be made during our own generation, after the passage of these many years when libraries in the United States and abroad have largely contented themselves with encouraging mass circulation.

Finally, we make definite a viewpoint implied throughout this paper: methods, devices, even the best library collections, are of little value without the great essential factor—carefully educated, selected, and trained personnel, with wide and deep book knowledge and a perennial devotion to the library's task of diffusing knowledge. A staff selected and promoted because of local residence or length of service, or recruited from half-educated apprentices who may know all the clerical routines, can never attain the high purpose, the morale, and the cultural level which is essential to public satisfaction. The libraries of America are increasingly concerned with improving their personnel, on whom rests the whole structure of American book service.

LIST NO. 1

STUDIES OF COMMUNITY AND OCCUPATIONAL BACKGROUND AND
READER INTEREST

NOTE.—See first the bibliography in William S. Gray and Ruth Munroe, *The Reading interests and habits of adults* (New York: Macmillan, 1929), pp. 275-98. This reviews the several studies made up to that date. The article by Mrs. Helen T. Steinhager, "Reading interest studies" (*Booklist*, XXX [1934], 331-34), brings the material five years farther, with brief comment, and gives an excellent summary of some of the most important studies to date. For a list of earlier library surveys see Joseph L. Wheeler's, *The Library and the community* (American Library Association, 1924), pp. 112-24, 401-3. The following added and more recent material should be noted.

BEEM, VIDA, "Community interests survey," *Illinois libraries*, IX (1927), 118-21.

CARNOVSKY, LEON, "Community studies in reading. II. Hinsdale, a suburb of Chicago," *Library quarterly*, V (January, 1935), 1-30.

COMPTON, CHARLES H., *Who reads what?* H. W. Wilson Co., 1934. Pp. 117.

- GUERRIER, EDITH, "The mechanics of a library survey" [abstract], *Library journal*, LII (1927), 1077.
- , "Surveying a community for its book needs," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXI (1927), 385-87.
- HAUCK, CELIA R., "Sheboygan Public Library survey of borrowers," *Wisconsin library bulletin*, XXV (1929), 82.
- HOUKOM, ALF, "The reading interest of educated people." Unpublished master's thesis, University of Illinois, 1933.
- KELLEY, GRACE O., *Woodside does read: A survey of the reading interests and habits of a local community*. Queens Borough Public Library, 1935. Pp. 200. To be published.
- MORRIS, MRS. ELIZABETH (CLEVELAND), MORSE, M. V., and PHILLIPS, EDNA, *Experimental reading study in the joint library-adult elementary educational field*. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. Pp. 44.
- MOSHIER, L. MARION, "A Comparison of a selected group of adults in New York City and a similar group in a town in New York State." Unpublished master's thesis, Columbia University, 1931.
- RIDGWAY, HELEN A., "Reading habits of adult non-users of the public library of a metropolitan community." Unpublished master's thesis, Columbia University School of Library Service, 1934.
- STONE, JOHN P., "Factors influencing reading choices." Unpublished master's thesis, University of Illinois, 1930.
- STUYVESANT, ELIZABETH, "The Use of public library facilities in New York City: A study of changes in habits of borrowers." Unpublished master's thesis, University of Illinois, 1930.
- THORNDIKE, EDWARD L., *Adult interests*. Macmillan, 1935. Pp. 265.
- TOMPKINS, MIRIAM D., "Those who follow reading courses," *Adult education and the library*, III (1928), 35-43.
- WAPLES, DOUGLAS, "A Study of the relationship between reading interest and actual reading," *Library quarterly*, IV (January, 1934), 76-112.
- "Who uses the Newark Public Library?" Newark Public Library, *The Library*, V (December, 1932), 27-30.
- "Well—What did they read?" *Ibid.*, pp. 31-32.
- WILSON, LOUIS R., "The Reader receives new consideration," *Library journal*, LVIII (1933), 353-58.

LIST No. 2

LISTS OF "READABLE" BOOKS FOR THE LESS SKILLED READER

- AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, COMMITTEE ON INSTITUTION LIBRARIES, "Illustrated books for adult illiterates," *Library journal*, LX (March 15, 1935), 261-63.

CHANCELLOR, JOHN, "Available reading material for native-born adult illiterates and near-illiterates." United States Bureau of Prisons, 1932. Pp. 35. Mimeo.

FELSENTHAL, EMMA, *Readable books in many subjects*. American Library Association, 1929. Pp. 32.

HOIT, DORIS L., *Books of general interest for today's readers*. American Library Association, 1934. Pp. 59.

Is checked for three grades of reading difficulty.

PHILLIPS, EDNA, *Easy books for new Americans*. American Library Association, 1927. Pp. 8.

JOSEPH L. WHEELER

ENOCH PRATT FREE LIBRARY
BALTIMORE, MARYLAND

NOTES ON THE CAUSES AND PREVENTION OF FOXING IN BOOKS¹

FREDERICK LOCKER-LAMPSON once said: "... it is a good thing to read books, and it need not be a bad thing to write them, but it is a pious thing to preserve those that have been some time written." One of the present writers, in a mood of "piety," prepared a paper for the 1932 American Library Association Convention on the "Preservation of rare books and manuscripts."² The number of inquiries received subsequent to its publication in the *Library quarterly*, and to its reprinting elsewhere, has led us to believe there are many "pious" librarians, and has given us the temerity to discuss a similar subject, "foxing"—an attempt to amplify, in view of later developments, the last paragraph of the previous paper, in which it was stated that "we are consulting with a California scientist . . . with the hope of finding means of preventing or arresting the development of 'foxing,' so often found in books and so imperfectly understood. . . ."

The "California scientist" referred to is co-author of the present report, and the experiments conducted represent an attempt to solve one of the problems that have troubled librarians and bibliophiles for centuries.

Messrs. Lydenberg and Archer, in their useful work on *The Care and repair of books*,³ inform us that "not infrequently on old paper, less commonly on modern stocks, one finds a dull rusty patch discoloring the page in annoying fashion. This is due to 'foxing,' the term going back to the rusty red of Reynard the Fox. Just what causes it is not certain. . . ." If we except

¹ A paper read before the Large College and Reference Libraries Section of the American Library Association, Denver, June 24-29, 1935.

² Thomas M. Iiams, "Preservation of rare books and manuscripts in the Huntington Library," *Library quarterly*, II (October, 1932), 375-86.

³ New York: R. R. Bowker, 1931, p. 72.

Pierre Sée's preliminary work on paper-infesting mold,⁴ we are in perfect accord with the foregoing statement—nothing conclusive was known about the cause and prevention of foxing. Research, made possible by the farsighted policy of the Board of Trustees of the Huntington Library and the Board of Regents of the University of California in supporting experimental work in this field, has given us very definite information on the subject. We do not, however, intend to present here a comprehensive final report on foxing, nor, indeed, are we ready to do so, for there are theoretical suppositions that still need to be confirmed experimentally. Consequently, we have selected as our title, "Notes on the causes and prevention of foxing in books."

If one examines microscopically a foxed area in paper, one may imagine he can see the evidence of deterioration which may have been brought about by some extraneous living agent. In many instances there are distinct indications of the growth of fungi. In old books and manuscripts, of course, one cannot tell whether the spot under examination was formed relatively recently or many years ago. If the latter is true, and if the discoloration was produced by a fungus, one may expect to find that definite evidence of the presence of the fungus has long since vanished.

Some forty-two different cultures⁵ taken from foxed areas of books were transferred to Sabouraud agar⁶ for experimentation. From the start we learned that mold spores capable of growth under favorable conditions were frequently to be found on

⁴ "Sur les Moisissures causant l'altération du papier," *Comptes rendus . . . de l'Académie des Sciences* (Paris, 1917), pp. 230-32; also *Les Maladies du papier piqué* (Paris, 1919).

Although Mr. Maurice J. Gunn in his book on *Print restoration and picture cleaning* (rev. ed.; London, 1922), seems to draw logical conclusions regarding the cause of foxing (pp. 47-48), there is no evidence that his observations were based on scientific investigation.

⁵ Among the genera of fungi thus isolated were *Penicillium*, *Aspergillus*, *Monilia*, *Alternaria*, *Hormodendrum*, *Stenphylium*, *Mucor*, and *Byssosclamyces*. Although many of these fungi belong to a large group known as *Fungi imperfecti*, their perfect or final stage usually being unknown, it is interesting to note that we frequently found a perfect or mature stage of *Penicillium*.

⁶ The following is the formula for Sabouraud agar: water (distilled), 1,000 cc.; peptone, 10 gm.; glucose (crude), 40 gm.; agar, 15 gm.

EXPOSITION OF UNIVERSALISM

INVERTICKSON

OF MAN

SYSTEM OF DOCTRINE

WHICH

PROMISES FINAL HOLINESS AND HAPPINESS IN HEAVEN TO ALL
MANKIND, RESPECTIVE OF MORAL CHARACTER
OR CONDUCT IN THIS LIFE.

BY REV. JOHN H. POWER.

"I speak as to wise men; judge ye what I say."
1 Cor. x, 15.

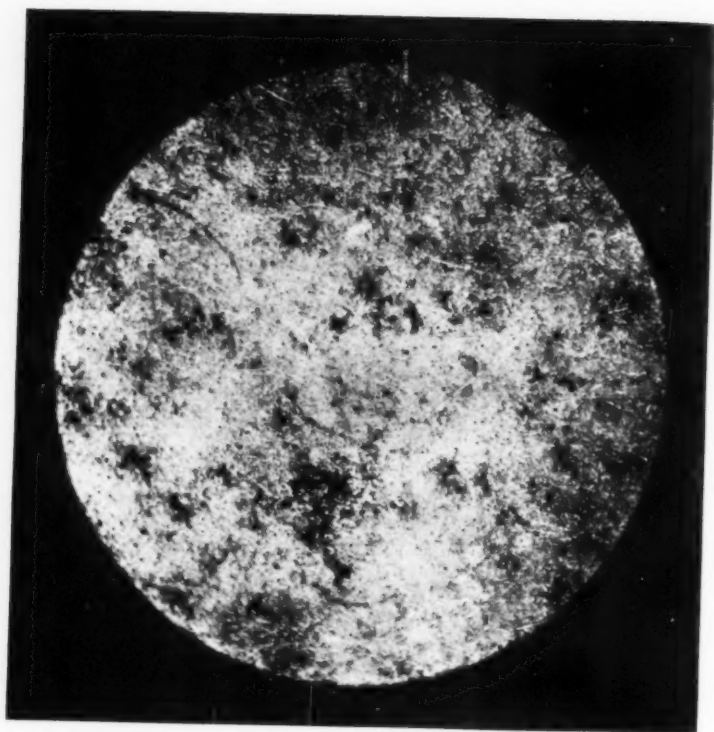
CINCINNATI:

PRINTED FOR THE AUTHOR, AT THE METHODIST BOOK
CONCERN, 311 MAIN-STREET.

R. P. Thompson, Printer.
1849.

A MORE TYPICAL EXAMPLE OF FOXING. NOTE THE SPREAD IS
FROM THE OUTER MARGINS INWARD





PHOTOMICROGRAPH OF RARE EXAMPLE OF FOXING WITH
SURFACE INDICATION OF FUNGUS

foxed areas of paper. It is a well-known fact that books and manuscripts stored under improper atmospheric conditions are likely to become moldy. There is evidence, as will be shown later, that surface mold (as distinguished from foxing), in addition to its unsightly appearance, has a distinct deteriorating influence on paper.

Percy Groom and Thérèse Panisset, in their work on the relation of temperature and humidity to the growth of mold,⁷ show by a series of experiments the conditions under which mold will develop on paper as well as those under which it will not grow at all; but, inasmuch as they were concerned chiefly with only one genus, and as too few papers of known sizing content were used, we felt that their studies would bear careful checking. By repeated experiments we found that fungi planted on filter paper, to which had been added a small amount of a nutrient solution,⁸ and on various papers of known sizing content, would not germinate—although the morphology of the spores was maintained—when the relative humidity surrounding the cultures was kept below 75 per cent. On the other hand, it was noted that with any increase in humidity above 75 per cent, marked acceleration of growth took place.

It may appear that we have placed the cart before the horse—that we have set forth the conditions under which fungi will not grow before definitely ascertaining the cause of foxing—but you will recall our preliminary observation, after examining examples of foxing by means of a high-powered microscope, that in some instances the results evident in the discolored area are distinctly indicative of the growth of fungi. We found it expedient to deal first with obvious clues. A logical premise was the possibility of differences in the chemical composition of the foxed and the unaffected parts of the same leaf. Tests made on volumes printed between 1645 and 1859 definitely proved that the foxed areas of books are more acid than the unfoxed or clean parts.

⁷ "Studies on *Penicillium chrysogenum* Thom, in relation to temperature and relative humidity of the air," *Annals of applied biology*, XX (November, 1933), 633-60.

⁸ A solution containing 0.5 per cent of monobasic potassium and 0.05 per cent of ammonium chloride.

The question now arises: Can fungi isolated from foxed paper form acid from paper stock? By employing a method too technical to be described here, we evolved a technique that enabled us to recognize the presence of acid directly, if it were produced from cellulose. Within eighteen days after inoculation, all cultures of fungi used for the experiment (twenty-seven out of twenty-seven) had grown and had produced acid. We could therefore conclude that paper-infesting fungi can produce acid in a medium in which cellulose is the sole source of carbon for this by-product.

To determine whether or not certain paper sizings influence either growth or acid production of fungi, we added starch, casein, and rosin to the pure cellulose and inoculated them with the twenty-seven cultures used in the previous experiment. We discovered that, while production of acid increased in the cultures containing starch, it decreased in those containing casein. Rosin, on the other hand, seemed to inhibit both the growth of fungi and the production of acid.

With the foregoing data at hand, we could now turn our thoughts to the more definite causes of the discoloration in foxed areas of paper. For the experiments that followed, ashless filter papers (containing no inorganic salts), moistened with 2 cc. of a nutrient solution, were used as controls, or checks for comparison. To other filter papers, prepared in the same manner, was added a 2½ per cent solution of alum and a 5 per cent solution of one of the following substances found in paper sizing and filling: rosin, starch, dextrin, gelatin, casein. Spores of one genus of fungus were transferred to all papers; and, after six weeks, observations were made on the eight cultures used in each test, to discover the extent of growth and evidence of discoloration.

The same experiments were applied to six different grades of commercial papers, of known sizing content, instead of the prepared filter papers. We noted in both sets of cultures (prepared and commercial papers) that, in general, growth did not take place until evident moisture had dried out, nor did discoloration or foxing occur until the cultures were several weeks old. How-

ever, in a few cases foxing was rather sudden in development and was extensive. Both sets of cultures were kept for a number of months after the completion of experiments made for our immediate needs; and examination from time to time revealed that the foxed areas were slowly enlarging, although in some cases the presence of mold could hardly be detected—a rather significant point to remember in view of the fact that most foxing in books shows no surface indication of the growth of extraneous matter. The development of fungi on the prepared filter papers and on the commercial papers was almost in the same proportion, but the extent of foxing varied. This discrepancy may be explained by the chemical differences in the two types of papers, in spite of the identical sizing materials added to the filter papers. In addition to the substances noted, all of the commercial papers contained varying amounts of rosin and alum in the sizing, both of which, as shown elsewhere, have an inhibitory effect upon growth and discoloration. There may be other substances in commercial papers than those mentioned which inhibit foxing but not the growth of fungi.

To determine the possible relationship between the degree of acidity of paper and the growth of fungi upon it, paper of nearly pure composition was prepared, so that each lot thus treated should have a different but known acid concentration. Ten species of fungi were planted for every lot of prepared paper; and an untreated control series was set up, making 120 units in this experiment. At the expiration of ten weeks, our observations indicated that the growth of fungi is not influenced by the relative acidity of paper.⁹ However, there was marked discoloration on the acid papers, proving—as we had already suspected—that discoloration or foxing is independent of the intensity of development of fungi. Luxuriant growth does not necessarily imply a great degree of discoloration, and, conversely, distinct foxing may accompany relatively small growth. Again, we should like to call attention to the fact that usually, when foxing is found in books, no surface indication of fungi is evident to the naked eye.

⁹ Hydrogen ion concentration pH₄ and pH₈.

The very color of foxing connotes the presence of iron. The next series of experiments was accordingly designed to determine the differences between the iron combinations of foxed and unfoxed areas of the same leaf, and to ascertain whether or not there is any difference in the actual iron content of the two areas. Strips of paper were cut from the affected portion of a heavily foxed leaf, and an equal amount by weight from the unfoxed area of the same leaf. The reaction to inorganic iron tests¹⁰ was much more intense in the foxed areas than in the case of the controls, although noticeable in the latter. This experiment also clearly showed the relative strength of foxed and unfoxed areas of paper, indicating the deleterious effect of foxing, for the discolored paper disintegrated much more rapidly in the acid solution used in the test than did the unaffected paper of the same leaf. Before drawing definite conclusions regarding the relative iron content, twenty foxed and twenty unfoxed samples were tested by applying an iron-indicator solution¹¹ directly on the paper. This, together with laboratory tests designed to simulate foxing by adding the known reagents in measured proportions, gave us an excellent idea of the total iron content, both organic and inorganic, in the foxed and unaffected areas of paper—namely, about 1 part to 1,000 of paper. We now know positively that foxing is attended by an actual increase in inorganic iron, which undoubtedly explains to a large extent its characteristic color. If the foregoing experiments indicate that foxing is merely the discoloration caused by iron rust or hydroxide, then it is not difficult to analyze the process by which this chemical reaction is brought about.

We have already shown that unaffected parts of foxed leaves contain inorganic iron, although in much smaller amounts than the foxed areas. The iron in colorless form, either organic or inorganic, was undoubtedly already present in the paper when it left the mills. The quantity of iron in paper depends on the

¹⁰ The two samples were digested separately in 6N hydrochloric acid to which was added potassium sulphocyanide. A pink color shows the presence of iron.

¹¹ Five per cent solution of potassium thiocyanate and 1 drop of N/10 hydrochloric acid. A brown color, easily distinguishable from the color of foxing, indicates the presence of iron.

chemical impurities allowed in the process of fabrication. The iron may have its origin in the water used or in connection with some other stage in the preparation of cellulose; in the boiling of rags, or in the bleaching process; or in the sizing or filler materials. Iron is known to be normally present in wood. Probably all metal salts are injurious to papers: we know with certainty that iron salts are. Without becoming too involved in the chemistry of paper, we may use as substantially correct the general grouping of papers, according to their durability, suggested by researches made by the Committee on the Deterioration of Paper in 1898: (1) cotton, flax, hemp; (2) wood cellulose—(a) sulphite, (b) soda, (c) sulphate-cellulose; (3) esparto and straw cellulose; and (4) ground wood pulp. The most durable papers are made from the fibers of the first group; the least durable from the last. Our observations, based on the examination of thousands of volumes from Gutenberg to Updike, gave evidence that the extent of foxing is almost in direct proportion to the methods used in the manufacture of paper. One seldom finds examples of foxing in incunabula, or books printed before 1501. On the other hand, very often titles issued from the Baskerville Press during the third quarter of the eighteenth century show signs of discoloration. For many of the books he printed, Baskerville undoubtedly used paper from one particular mill, possibly that of James Whatman, who had but recently (1757) turned to the new way of making paper of finer texture on a wove mold, a method which he, perhaps, helped to perfect. Shortly after the Baskerville era came the machine method of making paper, with an increase in the use of chemicals, and, consequently, greater chances for impurities in the final product. The prevalent use of rosin, alum, and other inhibitory materials in sizings may help to explain the fact that foxing is not so often seen in modern stocks; yet we suspect, in view of the unfortunate experience with foxing of new books in countries where high humidities prevail, that modern methods of storing volumes in steel stacks in fairly well-ventilated rooms, or at least where the moisture content of the air does not exceed 75 per cent of saturation, have done much to reduce the

extent of foxing in current books. When at all possible, books are kept dry—in many cases too much so, for heat and resultant low moisture content of the air can do quite as much damage as high humidity. Paper that has become too dry deteriorates at an alarming rate, partly because of the concentration of non-volatile acids (especially sulphuric) during the drying-out process, leaving a high percentage of them to attack the fibers. Any sudden increase or decrease of humidity causes expansion and contraction of the fibers in paper and, if continued over a period of time, cannot help weakening them. If paper thus weakened has iron present, and if conditions are favorable for the growth of fungi, the organic acids secreted by the fungi unite with the iron content of the paper and deterioration sets in at a dangerous pace. The iron salts in these organic acids, being unstable, decompose very readily into iron hydroxide and iron oxide, producing foxed spots. Although the reaction we have outlined is only a hypothesis, it seems to be substantiated experimentally.

It is natural to raise the question whether or not the presence of iron in paper stimulated the growth of fungi. Using a series of cultures on filter papers with various sizings and filler materials, as well as with a 1:1,000 solution of iron added, we were able to show conclusively that growth then greatly exceeded any that had been produced in the laboratory without the presence of iron in the culture papers. It was also demonstrated, as in the case of previous experiments with paper known to contain iron, that these cultures developed foxing exactly like that produced by natural means, and to a greater extent than on papers to which iron was not added. Moreover, the presence of iron hastened the appearance of foxing on the culture papers.

Although we investigated the possibility of several other circumstances that might conceivably have a bearing on the causes of foxing in papers, such as bacterial growth, acids, impurities in the air, etc., fungus stood out as the chief agent. We cannot, of course, say with any degree of finality that fungus is the sole cause of foxing. Indeed, we suspect that other factors may influence the development of certain types of foxing. Although we have shown that a small growth of fungi may be instrumental in

CHAP. I. and English, which, he could not but observe, were becoming
1643-44. stronger, since the accession of the House of Braganza to the
Crown of Portugal. Van Diemen was probably instructed from
Europe, of the probable re-establishment of the political relations
between England and Portugal; at this Kingdom was again separated
from Spain; availing himself, however, of the low state
of the Portuguese force in the Indies, and particularly of the
advantages which the Dutch fleet had gained over them at sea,
Barel proposed, that the Portuguese should cede to the Dutch
their possessions in the Island of Ceylon; but the forces of the
Portuguese having been successful in that island, where, after a
severe conflict, they had defeated the Dutch, and taken Negom-
bo, the Viceroy rejected the proposition as inadmissible. As the
cession of Ceylon was the basis on which the projected treaty
was to proceed, the negotiation broke off, and the Dutch re-as-
sembled their fleet off Goa, and renewed the blockade.

These events account for the difficulties under which the
Presidency and Council at Surat were placed, independently of
the low state of their funds, in making up their investments,
which was farther depressed by Courten's shipping, which had
established a factory at Achree, and obtained a proportion of
pepper.⁽¹⁾

As the Agency at ISPAHAN, though ordered by the Court to
be relinquished, was, upon consultation, found to be necessary,
for obtaining the Phirmaunds from the new King, which we left
the

The Court's
orders for the
Persian trade,
in the situa-
tion, that

(1)—Letter from the President and Council of Surat to the Court, dated 17th January
and 12th February 1643-44.

discoloring a comparatively large area of paper, there still remains the fact (already noted) that usually, wherever foxing is discovered, no surface indication of fungi is evident. This apparent anomaly may be explained theoretically as follows: Biochemical changes are induced by living organisms through the agency of enzymes or ferments; the organism sets up the ferment, and the ferment brings about the chemical change; ferments or enzymes may be diffusible where there is moisture present; thus the effects of micro-organic growth may become evident at some distance from the site of formation of the enzyme; the enzyme, in turn, may bring about its chemical change and the products of its activity also may diffuse to a distance; hence, either one, or both, of the factors mentioned may operate at some distance from the spot where growth originally took place.

There is one conceivable source of moisture, sufficiently high for the germination of mold, that has not been mentioned but that may explain why foxing may possibly develop even when the humidity around the books is known to be less than 75 per cent—we refer to certain papers of hygroscopic qualities, whose fibers may retain over a long period of time a higher percentage of moisture than the surrounding atmosphere and thus enable mold to develop and produce acid. This moisture may have been absorbed while the book was in the damp hold of some ship, or while stored in a basement pending shelving in a dry room, or, again, while perspiring hands fingered its leaves.

There is some doubt as to whether or not foxing, once started, continues to spread when atmospheric conditions and moisture content of the paper are no longer encouraging to the growth of mold. We have had an opportunity to observe the development of foxing from its inception, in several copies of the same title, published in 1924, and shelved in various rooms in the Huntington Library. The paper is uncoated, has a rather dull finish, and shows evidence of being unusually hygroscopic. Specks no larger than a pin point and light brown in color have developed within two years into rust-colored spots from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch across, and, where three or four specks appeared on a

page two years ago, scores are now in evidence. There is no surface indication of fungi in this book; yet inoculations from foxed areas grew almost without exception. Foxed and unfoxed parts have the same reaction to acid and iron tests as in the case of the older and more advanced samples. We have seen several copies of this title in different parts of the United States, under varying atmospheric conditions, and in each case there is evidence of foxing. We hope within the next six months to have more specific information regarding the relative development of foxing, known to be at a growing stage, under controlled, unvarying humidity and temperature (50 per cent and 70° F.) maintained for a period of a year.

In general, foxing occurs first along the outside border of a book and gradually spreads inward. This is possibly explained by the fact that moisture-laden air is more likely to penetrate the outside borders (top, bottom, and front) of a closed book than deeper into the volume. There are, of course, exceptions to the general rule. One occasionally finds foxing on the printed surface of a page and not at all on the margins. In such cases, the moisture, and possibly a nutrient substance, may have been left by the ink, or the platen of the press, at the time the impression was made. Very often end papers are foxed, while the rest of the volume is unaffected. The necessary moisture was supplied by the paste. More frequently than not, the paper is of a different quality than that found in the rest of the book.

We have noticed, too, that volumes subjected to the greatest use are the ones that have the heaviest degree of foxing, perhaps because of the longer exposure of the leaves to air and to the absorption of moisture from the hands of readers.

One naturally wonders about the source of the mold spores that seem to be ever present on paper and waiting only for favorable conditions to germinate. It did not take us long to inoculate several prepared plates, placed here and there throughout the library building. The air seems to be literally full of these microscopic spores. Moreover, it is not at all improbable that paper itself may contain them.

We learned, much to our surprise, that potent fumigants such as formaldehyde,¹² even under vacuum, do not destroy the life of the spores. Neither were they affected by hydrocyanic acid gas. Of the many other fumigants tested,¹³ only ortho-chlorophenol seemed to have penetrating qualities sufficient to kill spores in closed volumes. Tests have not yet been made to determine whether or not this fumigant would have any deleterious effect on paper. Sunshine is an excellent fungicide, but too long exposure of books to ultra-violet rays may do more harm than good to certain types of paper. Further experiments with fungicides are now in progress.

If, as we have endeavored to prove, certain kinds of foxing are caused by the growth of fungus, and if various paper-infesting fungi will not germinate where the relative humidity is less than 75 per cent, one may assume that the logical means of retarding the spread of foxing is to control the moisture content of the air to the exact requirements. The most satisfactory method of creating ideal atmospheric conditions for the proper care of books (70° of temperature and 50 per cent of relative humidity) is to instal an air-conditioning system. Such a plant has been giving perfect satisfaction at the Huntington Library for several years, and the curators of rare books and manuscripts speak in glowing terms of its many benefits. Every precaution should be taken to see that books are not stored in damp rooms or basements. As a temporary expedient, anhydrous calcium chloride may be used to take up some of the excessive moisture in rooms. The water thus absorbed liquifies the calcium chloride, and consequently it has to be replenished from time to time; but arrangements may be made with distributors of the anhydrous product to buy back the liquid calcium chloride, and so the procedure need not be an expensive one. There are other

¹² Pierre Sée (see n. 4) recommends disinfection by formaldehyde but admits its lack of penetrating qualities. Our experiments indicated that, even when penetration was assured by the use of a vacuum fumigator under the most favorable conditions, formaldehyde was not a good fungicide.

¹³ Ethylene oxide, xylol, mercuraphen, 8-hydroxyquinoline, toluol, hydrogen sulphide, tribrom beta naphthol, chloroform, tetrachlorethane, ortho-chlorophenol, and many other fumigants.

dehydrating processes on the market, but before purchasing, one should carefully investigate claims made by over-enthusiastic salesmen. Engineers are likely to recommend raising the temperature of a room to a very high degree in order to lower the moisture content. But, as already explained, this remedy might be more dangerous to books than mold itself, and should be resorted to only to dry out a damp room before books are placed in it.

The removal of foxed spots on paper, once they are formed, presents still another problem. As mentioned elsewhere, the tensile strength of the discolored areas is considerably less than the unaffected parts of the same leaf. The use of bleaching agents, such as potassium permanganate, potassium metabisulphite, potassium ferricyanide, hydrochloric acid, oxalic acid, ammonia, and hydrogen peroxide, may tend further to impair the already none-too-stable paper, and should be restricted to extreme cases, and then applied only by experts. We have still to find a method of removing foxing from books that is at once efficient and yet shows promise of producing no deleterious effects in years to come on the paper treated.

With the information now available, it seems reasonable to hope that iron-free paper could be made with an inhibitory substance in the sizing that would in effect be resistant to the development of foxing under ordinary storage conditions. The complete disintegration of foxed books can be postponed many years, possibly centuries, by proper care. Certain important historical and literary documents written on papyrus and other impermanent materials have survived chiefly because of the favorable atmospheric conditions under which they were kept. We need no longer rely solely on fortuities of climate and materials for the preservation of books: modern science is showing us the way.

THOMAS M. IIAMS
THE HUNTINGTON LIBRARY
SAN MARINO, CALIFORNIA

T. D. BECKWITH
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT LOS ANGELES

THE SELECTION OF BOOKS FOR COLLEGE LIBRARIES: AN EXAMINATION OF CERTAIN FACTORS WHICH AFFECT EXCELLENCE OF SELECTION

THE study upon which this article is based constituted an objective analysis of certain of the processes, techniques, and other factors which play a part in book selection for the libraries of a restricted group of liberal arts colleges—those whose libraries possess fewer than 50,000 volumes.¹ The purpose of the study was to determine whether any of the processes or practices of book selection affect quality of selection, and, if so, how. The investigation was designed, therefore, primarily to answer the questions: "Does the presence of certain factors of book selection tend to result in satisfactory book collections, and the absence of such factors make for unsatisfactory ones? If so, what are those factors?"

The study was thus an effort to describe, for the benefit of administrators and librarians, certain criteria for judging the quality of book selection in four-year liberal arts colleges. The increasing importance of the rôle of the college library in the educational process emphasizes the need for adequate book collections.² The changing trends in education continue to place additional burdens on the library as regards the collection, organization, and dissemination of materials. The college library today must supply its faculty with materials for instruction and re-

¹ J. Periam Danton, "The Selection of books for college libraries: An examination of certain factors which affect excellence of selection." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, June, 1935.

² See Floyd W. Reeves and John Dale Russell, "The Relation of the college library to recent movements in higher education," *Library quarterly*, I (January, 1931), 57-66; Floyd W. Reeves, John Dale Russell, et al. *The Liberal arts college* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932), pp. 146 ff; William M. Randall, *The College library* (Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1932); William Warner Bishop, "Our college and university libraries. A survey and a program," *School and society*, XII (September 18, 1920), 205; and Louis Round Wilson, "The Emergence of the college library," *Bulletin of the American Library Association*, XXV (September, 1931), 439-46.

search; it must provide the student with books for collateral and "background" reading, as well as with general reference and bibliographic tools, and it is called upon to supply the student with materials for recreational or voluntary (i.e., extra-curricular) reading. One of the important assumptions upon which this study rests is that the excellence or inferiority of college-library book collections is due, in large measure, to the manner in which the books are selected, including the amount of time spent in selection, the apparatus used, the persons or agencies responsible, etc. In other words, a good collection is partly the result of certain factors related to the book-selecting process.

The fact that there exist, in the literature of the library profession, no criteria for evaluating the techniques now used in building up college-library book collections would seem to justify the present attempt to arrive at such standards. The need for these standards was clearly felt by the Advisory Group on College Libraries which, during 1929-32, recommended to the Carnegie Corporation the making of grants to college libraries for their book collections. The *List of books for college libraries*³ was compiled to meet, in some measure, the need for objective criteria. Lists of books—however excellent in themselves and however carefully compiled—are, of course, rigid in structure and soon become out of date; being retroactive rather than prospective, they are of no help in the future selection of current books; they offer no principles for the selection of books; and they assume, as far as their use is concerned, that the various book needs of all libraries to which they are applied will be very nearly the same. The existing literature on various aspects of book selection discusses the ways in which books are at present selected, treats of the necessity for supplying student needs, presents lists of "best books," gives sources for the purchase of books, and deals with problems of co-ordination, book-buying (in contradistinction to book selection), and similar topics. What apparently is needed, and what this study aims to supply, is a presentation of the factors, which, when present, result in satisfactory book selection.

³ Charles B. Shaw, *A List of books for college libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1931). This work will also be referred to as the "Shaw List."

SOURCES AND COLLECTION OF THE DATA

The two principal sources upon which was based the selection of the colleges to be studied were (1) the data on college libraries collected from 1929 to 1932 by Professor William M. Randall for the Carnegie Corporation Advisory Group on College Libraries and (2) *A List of books for college libraries*, edited by Charles B. Shaw. Mr. Randall's data constitute a reliable sample for all college libraries, and Mr. Shaw's *List* has been shown to be a valid relative measure of small-college-library book collections.⁴

The variables of size of collection, amounts of money spent for books, and annual accessions per year are, for the whole range of college libraries in the country, so great and of such influence in the number and kind of books held by these libraries as to make controlled comparison between all liberal arts college libraries impossible. The effect of these variables was eliminated in two ways: The first of these was by restricting the study to libraries having fewer than 50,000 volumes; these libraries all made annual expenditures for books of less than \$8,400 and had annual accessions of less than 3,050 volumes. The second means for the elimination of these factors was the use of a regression equation by which a predicted, theoretical percentage of holdings from the Shaw *List* was obtained by holding constant the variables of size of collection and average accessions per year (which includes amounts spent for books).⁵ The actual percentage of holdings from the *List*, divided by the predicted percentage, gives an index-number which represents the relative quality of book selection. The eleven libraries with the

⁴ For a fuller treatment of these two points and of the paragraphs which follow, see Danton, *op. cit.*, pp. 17-43.

⁵ For several reasons periodicals were not included in the study. In the first place, periodical holdings were omitted from the tabulations of total holdings constituting a part of Randall's data, some use of which was made in the present study. In the second place, the number of periodicals included in the Shaw *List*, use of which was also made, was so small as to have made no difference in the percentage of books held by the colleges in any case; and if a retabulation to include periodical holdings had been attempted, any conclusions based on so few data would almost inevitably be open to grave suspicion. Finally, and more important, it was felt that the periodical question in college libraries was a somewhat special one, and in several significant respects, notably that of continuation, quite separate from that of books. Consequently, the inclusion of periodicals might have been confusing rather than helpful.

highest, and the thirteen with the lowest, index-numbers were studied in an effort to determine what factors caused the differences. The libraries (eighty-six, in all) to which the regression equation was applied are connected with institutions in twenty-nine states representing each of the nine geographical divisions recognized by the United States Census Bureau. Men's, women's, and coeducational colleges were represented.

It is recognized that the exclusion from the study of libraries having more than 50,000 volumes and larger annual accessions and greater annual expenditures for books than those mentioned above eliminated many, if not most, of the best liberal arts college libraries of the country. However, within the designated class of libraries there is apparent a wide difference between the "high-index" and the "low-index" libraries—that is, between the libraries exhibiting the most-satisfactory and the least-satisfactory book selection. This difference exists in spite of the fact that the variables just mentioned are comparable for the two groups, and it is very much greater than such differences as exist between the two with respect to those variables. It may be added that all but two of the high-index group held accreditation from the American Association of Universities; only three of the low-index group did so. The present study investigates the factors which go to make up the spread between the two groups, while recognizing, first, that other libraries, not included in the study, may be better from the point of view of book selection than the best of those which are included, and that, as a consequence, the differences between very good and very poor selection for all colleges would in all probability be much greater than the differences presented in this study.

There is an additional point of considerable educational significance which may be mentioned in this connection. Of the more than 820 universities, colleges, and professional schools in the United States, over 580, or a trifle over 70 per cent, have libraries of less than 50,000 volumes. The percentage would probably be about the same, or slightly higher, for liberal arts colleges alone, since the elimination of the universities, with their generally larger collections, would be compensated for by the elimination of the professional schools, which generally have

small libraries.⁶ This means that a large number—certainly over 50 per cent, and possibly approaching 70 per cent—of the students in liberal arts colleges are in institutions having libraries of less than 50,000 volumes. From an educational point of view, therefore, it is quite as important to study the smaller of our college libraries as the larger. It is not as though the liberal arts college library of less than 50,000 volumes were the exception; on the contrary, colleges having libraries of this size are responsible for the education of a large proportion of all the students attending liberal arts institutions.

The study attempted to determine the reasons for the differences between the high-index and the low-index libraries, and for this purpose data on the processes of book selection for the libraries and data on certain factors regarding the persons who do the selecting, were collected. This was done largely by means of questionnaires, correspondence, and personal visits. Information secured in the three different ways showed extremely high consistency. The percentage of returns from the librarians was perfect; the returns from the faculty members in the institutions were over 60 per cent—72 per cent from the high-index group and 47 per cent from the low-index one. Over 87 per cent of the faculty members replying gave their names, although they were not specifically requested to do so. Many submitted explanatory or supplementary material—often at considerable length. These facts point to the reliability and representativeness of the returns and indicate that a majority of those from whom information was secured were conscientious and thoughtful in their replies.

FINDINGS

Preliminary study revealed two differences between the high-index and the low-index libraries. The first of these had to do with the conditions under which the book appropriations were made. It was found that (1) the recommendations of the librarians as to the needs of the libraries' collections as a whole were given consideration in all of the high-index libraries but in only about half of the low-index ones; (2) the appropriation of

⁶ Of the 205 institutions included in Randall's study, 80 per cent have libraries of less than 50,000 volumes.

departmental book funds was made on the basis of need in a majority of the high-index libraries and on some fixed, arbitrary basis in a majority of the low-index ones; and (3) unexpended portions of the book funds did not revert to the general college budget in the high-index group but did revert in the case of most of the libraries in the low-index one. In these respects the high-index libraries have a potential advantage so far as book selection and the building-up of book collections are concerned.

The second of the two differences just mentioned was the very considerable turnover among the librarians of six of the thirteen low-index libraries. This fact suggests the possibility that, even granting an intelligent, consistent, long-time policy of book selection, the interruption of any such policy, which must inevitably accompany frequent change in the library administrative personnel, is potentially detrimental to good book selection.

The main findings divide themselves logically into two parts: the first concerned with book selection as related to the librarians, and the second with selection as related to faculty members.

LIBRARIANS AND BOOK SELECTION

Table I shows in consolidated form certain of the findings regarding the librarians and the library administration of the high- and low-index libraries. From the first item of this table it will be seen that the librarians of the high-index libraries have, as a group, somewhat superior general education; from the second item it may be noted that nine of the high-index group had at least the generally accepted standard of one year of professional education but that only one of the low-index group had as much as this. Eight of the thirteen librarians in this group had no professional education whatever. Item 3 of Table I shows that the librarians of the high-index libraries had, on the average, more years of experience in college and university as well as in other libraries. Only two of the librarians of the low-index group had had any previous library experience when they were appointed to their present positions. The wisdom of a policy which permits such a situation seems highly debatable unless it is assumed that experience is a worthless commodity.

TABLE I

DATA CONCERNING THE LIBRARIANS AND CERTAIN FACTORS
RELATED TO BOOK SELECTION IN THE HIGH-INDEX
AND LOW-INDEX LIBRARIES

Factor	High-Index Libraries	Low-Index Libraries
1. General education of the librarians (11 high index, 13 low index):		
a) Ph.D.	1	0
b) 5 years of college or M.A.	2	3
c) 4 years of college or B.A.	8	6
d) Less than 4 years of college	0	4
2. Professional education of the librarians (11 high index, 13 low index):		
a) More than 1 year.	2	0
b) 1 year.	7	1
c) Less than 1 year.	0	4
d) None.	2	8
3. Mean number of years of experience of the librarians (11 high index, 13 low index):		
a) In college and university libraries.	2.6	1.0
b) In other libraries.	2.4	0.79
c) In (a) and (b) combined.	5.09	1.79
4. Function of the library committee (10 high index, 11 low index):		
a) Apportionment of the book budget.	6	9
b) Advisory function only.	9	2
c) Administrative function.	0	9
d) Book selection:		
Curricular books.	0	7
Non-curricular books.	2	8
Reference books.	0	6
None.	8	2
5. Chief book-selection responsibility of the librarians (11 high index, 11 low index):		
a) Reference books.	11	6
b) Non-curricular books.	11	6
c) Systematic growth of the library.	11	4
d) None.	0	3
Frequency of book selection of the librarians (11 high index, 11 low index):		
a) Daily.	4	0
b) 1-4 times a week.	6	2
c) 1-3 times a month.	0	3
d) 1-3 times a semester.	1	1
e) Once a year.	0	1
f) Never.	0	2
g) No estimate.	0	2
7. Time spent in book selection by the librarians (11 high index, 11 low index):		
a) 2 hours a day or more.	0	0
b) 1-2 hours a day.	4	1
c) 1 hour a day.	3	0
d) 1-4 hours a week.	4	3
e) 1-3 hours a month.	0	3
f) 1-3 hours a semester.	0	0
g) None.	0	2
h) No estimate.	0	2

The burden of proof appears to rest with those who have, consciously or unconsciously, acted upon that assumption.

The chief difference between the two groups apparent from the fourth item of Table I is that in a majority of the low-index libraries the library committee functions as an administrative body and as a book selection agency, whereas it does not so function in the high-index institutions. It is unfortunately impossible to measure what effect, if any, the designation of administrative authority to a library committee might have upon the book-selection activities and book collections of the library. It seems safe to say, however, that where, as is the case with most of the low-index libraries, the actual policies or administration of book selection (as well as of other matters) are at the mercy of, or in the hands of, a library committee, appointed from year to year, it is not likely that a consistent, far-seeing policy of book selection or of book collection building will be carried out. When, as one librarian admitted, it is the function of the library committee "to administer all the business of the library," it may well be asked why the college pays the salary of a librarian at all. Based on a wide experience in surveying liberal arts colleges, Reeves and Russell have maintained that "any arrangement whereby the librarian is made directly responsible to a committee of the faculty seems both unwise and unnecessary," and that the committee "should never be given direct authority to supervise the work of the librarian or to deal with the routine administration of the library."⁷ It seems probable that the inferiority of a number of the low-index libraries is in considerable measure due to a thoroughgoing violation of this principle.

Possibly of more direct importance for the present purpose is the fact that in nine of the eleven low-index libraries the library committee functions definitely as a book-selection agency. The extent of the committee's activity varies from the relatively innocuous one of passing on the purchase of large orders or sets

⁷ *The Liberal arts college, op. cit.*, pp. 159. See also in this connection, U.S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. *Survey of land-grant colleges and universities. The library* (Bulletin No. 9 [1930]), I, Part VIII, 652.

of reference books to cases in which the committee virtually does all book selection, the only outside intrusion being the hopeful submission of lists by department heads. The unsoundness of this general practice hardly needs to be pointed out.⁸ At most, a library committee meets once or twice a month; generally it meets two or four times a year. It is not to be expected that, during the meetings, anything approaching adequate consideration can be given to the scores or hundreds of titles which will come into question, or that faculty members will have the necessary time or incentive for such consideration outside of committee meetings. Even if they did, the committee members have neither the specialized knowledge outside of their own fields nor—what is more important—an intimate knowledge of the holdings and weaknesses of the library collections as a whole.⁹ If the librarian does not have this latter, no one will; and in that case, unless the college is willing to employ a librarian capable of gaining it and trained to select books, it probably matters little who does the selecting. The specialized knowledge of different subject fields can and should be provided by the faculty as a whole, who will thus co-operate in the selection of curricular books; the selection of reference and general reading materials should largely be left to the person employed, trained, and with the requisite time to do so; in both instances book-selection activity by the library committee is unnecessary, unwise, and an intrusion. The prevalence of library-committee book selection among the low-index libraries may not be an example of cause and effect, but it gives considerable indication of being so. The need for librarians competent and authorized to select books and to build up unified book collections has been noted before this,¹⁰ but the lack of such librarians has never before been so clearly associated with inferior book selection.

The data shown under Item 5 of Table I are to be expected in view of the findings presented in the preceding item. What is immediately apparent is that the chief responsibility for the selection of reference and non-curricular books is, in all of the

⁸ Cf. *The Survey of land-grant colleges and universities*, *op. cit.*, p. 652.

⁹ Reeves, Russell, *et al.*, *op. cit.*, pp. 167-68.

¹⁰ Randall, *op. cit.*, p. 107.

high-index libraries, in the hands of the librarians, whereas this is the case in only six of the low-index libraries. (The six are not the same for both classes of books; that is to say, in two of the six the librarian is responsible for reference but not for non-curricular books, and in two for non-curricular but not for reference books.) It is further apparent that in all of the high-index group, but in only four of the low-index group, the librarians are definitely responsible for the systematic growth and development of the library collection, and that in three of the low-index group the librarians have no chief responsibility for selection.

The colleges in which the high-index libraries are located have seen fit to delegate to their librarians most of the responsibility for the selection of reference and non-curricular books; this fact, coupled with the findings of students in the field of higher education, points strongly to the conclusion that the extent to which the librarian is thus responsible constitutes an important factor in the quality of book selection. Such a conclusion would obviously be open to criticism, though it might still be valid, if there were no probability that the librarians were able to make good use of this responsibility. In the present case it has been shown that the librarians of the high-index libraries have, as a class, better general and professional education than have those of the low-index libraries. Unless one is willing to say that these types of education are positively detrimental to book selection for college libraries, the conclusion seems justified.

Items 6 and 7 of Table I show data regarding the frequency of book selection and the time spent in selection by the librarians of the two groups of libraries. The data are, of necessity, approximations and must be so regarded. Librarians do not keep, nor could they be expected to keep, accurate statistics concerning their book selection activities; but it was felt that some difference might exist between the two groups and that even an approximate picture of the situation would serve useful comparative purposes. The data shown are of interest for such purposes.

Considering Item 6, and omitting the two cases for which no estimate was given, it appears that the librarians of ten of

eleven high-index libraries gave time to book selection one to four times a week or more frequently, and that in seven of nine low-index libraries selection was less frequent than this. There is, therefore, a very definite tendency for greater frequency of selection to be associated with the high-index libraries. The reason for whatever significance these data may have lies in the frequency of appearance and the volume of published aids to book selection, such as dealers' catalogs, the *Publishers' weekly*, the *Saturday review of literature*, and so on. If bibliographic and book-reviewing publications of this kind are not examined when they first arrive, they will accumulate so rapidly that they are likely to be neglected altogether or only glanced at *en masse* in cursory fashion. In either case the chances are great that useful titles will be overlooked. The book collection must almost certainly suffer if attention is given to selection less frequently than once a week.

Similarly, Item 7 shows that the librarians of the high-index libraries spent 1-4 hours a week or more in book selection and that only four of the librarians of the low-index libraries spent this much time; seven of the eleven high-index group spent 1 hour a day or more, whereas only one of the low-index group spent as much time as this. Again there is a fairly strong tendency for greater amounts of time spent in book selection to be associated with the high-index libraries. This is, of course, to be expected in view of the data shown under the preceding item.

The use of certain bibliographic and other tools is essential if the librarian is to know what books are being published and if he is to gain information about those books. Table II shows to what extent the librarians regularly use a selected group of general book-selection aids. This table is to be read as follows: seven of eleven high-index libraries and three of eleven low-index ones regularly use the *Publishers' weekly*, etc.

It is to be noted that the list includes only *generally* useful titles; special subject bibliographies and the like were omitted because, in the first place, their inclusion, to even a reasonably complete degree, would have resulted in a very long list; secondly, these libraries, with limited funds, serving small undergradu-

ate institutions, probably do not need, and in most instances would not have, the highly specialized sort of bibliographic apparatus; and, thirdly, a short list of the more important and generally useful aids would be more likely to bring out significant differences, if such exist, than would a longer one, for many items of which there might be only one or two checks.

TABLE II
USE OF BOOK-SELECTION AIDS IN ELEVEN HIGH-INDEX
AND ELEVEN LOW-INDEX LIBRARIES

Book-Selection Aid	High-Index Libraries	Low-Index Libraries
1. <i>New York times book review</i>	11	8
2. <i>Saturday review of literature</i>	11	5
3. <i>United States catalog and Cumulative book index</i>	11	10
4. <i>Book review digest</i>	10	8
5. <i>Shaw List</i>	10	5
6. <i>Bibliographies and reviews</i>	10	5
7. <i>Booklist</i>	9	5
8. <i>Publishers' weekly</i>	7	3
9. <i>Wilson Standard catalogs</i>	6	6
10. <i>English catalogue</i>	5	0
11. <i>Books abroad</i>	3	0
12. <i>New York herald tribune books</i>	3	2
13. <i>Whitaker's cumulative book list</i>	2	0
14. <i>Hester's Books for junior colleges</i>	1	0
15. <i>Bibliographie de la France</i>	0	0
16. <i>Hilton's Junior college book list</i>	0	0
17. <i>Wöchentliches Verzeichnis</i>	0	0
Total	99	57
Mean	9.0	5.18

No claim is made for completeness, even within these limits (e.g., the *Publishers' trade list annual* and the American Library Association *Catalogs* are not included); but most of the most essential tools (and a few others) are listed.

For the purposes of the present study, possibly the most telling disclosure of these data lies in the total and mean use of aids by the two groups. These are, respectively, for the high group 99 and 9.0, and for the low group 57 and 5.18. Obviously the listed titles are not of equal value, as they would have to be if these figures were to be considered in any sense absolute. Fur-

thermore, the collective item (No. 6), "Bibliographies and reviews," may mean much or little—it may mean, when checked, intensive daily or weekly search in a dozen publications for worth-while subject material, or it may mean the hasty and occasional scanning of two or three titles "on the chance of finding something." The item was included in the list for a general purpose and is counted at its minimum value as a single title. However, the differences in the use of tools by the two groups is apparent throughout the whole list and is decreased very little if one includes only the first twelve titles (omitting the lowest five which might be considered nonessential); the total and mean figures for the two groups then are: 96, 8.7; 57, 5.18. Even if the first ten titles only are reckoned with, the difference is not greatly decreased—in this case the comparable figures for the two groups are: 90, 8.18; 55, 5. It is apparent that the low-index group uses considerably fewer titles to aid in book selection than does the high-index group.

Further testimony to the truth of this statement is adduced from the fact that a majority of the high-index group indicated additional titles, such as the *Boston transcript* and the *London times literary supplement*, which were used as aids to selection; only two of the low-index libraries indicated any additional titles. It may likewise be seen that Items 10-14, the lowest five (omitting 15, 16, and 17, which were not checked by any of the libraries) received a total of fourteen checks from the high-index group but only two checks from the low-index one. Consequently, if the list were extended to include additional titles at this level, it is probable that even greater total and mean differences between the two groups would be disclosed. For these reasons, the present differences may be considered minimal.

Taking the list as a whole, the disparity between the two groups may be expressed statistically, by the standard error of the difference between two means, as $3.82 \pm .771$, the difference being more than 4.9 times the error. The chances are therefore better than 999 in 1,000 that the difference is a significant one.

The general conclusion that the libraries which are better from the point of view of book selection regularly use a significantly greater number of aids than do those which are poor in

this respect seems to have a close bearing on a fact already brought out, namely, that the librarians of the former group have considerably more professional training than do those of the latter. One cannot use a tool unless one has learned of its existence, and one cannot use it fully unless one has learned its special merits and defects. Our library schools give a certain amount of training in techniques, including those of bibliography and the fundamental apparatus of book selection. Although experience is a valuable teacher, the knowledge gained from it alone is frequently incomplete and faulty and, other things being equal, is rarely as well grounded as that which has a background of formal training. The librarians of the low-index group do not have, as a class, such training in anything like the degree that the librarians of the high-index libraries do. Consequently, they know less about fundamental bibliographic tools and use them less than do the librarians of the high-index libraries.

For the large-college or university library, having a number of full-time staff members, this might not be so serious, for the librarians of such institutions, frequently chosen primarily for their administrative or academic—as opposed to professional—qualifications, have professionally trained assistants to whom may fall the burden of carrying on the technical work of the library. But in more than half of the libraries under consideration, the librarian is the only full-time employee, and is the only member of the library staff at all likely to be professionally trained. Such book selection (and other professional) activities as are carried on within the library are, therefore, the task of the librarian, rather than of assistants. If the librarian is untrained for the adequate performance of these activities, the library suffers.

Several other facts of interest may be gleaned from Table II. One of these is that all of the high-index libraries use three of the listed titles; whereas no title is used by all of the low-index libraries. In like manner, seven titles are used by nine or more of the high-index group, but only one title has this distinction among the low group. At the other extreme, as already noted in

another connection, it may be seen that, omitting the three titles checked by no library, the lowest five titles were checked a total of fourteen times by the high-index group and only twice by the low-index one. It might be argued that these lowest titles are of little or no importance for small-college-library book selection, that in using them the high-index libraries were performing an act of supererogation, and that, consequently, their non-use by the low-index libraries signifies nothing. This may be true. On the other hand, it seems likely that part of the measure of the superiority of the one group over the other lies precisely in the extra aids, including the additional, unlisted ones, which were used to secure information about books.

FACULTY MEMBERS AND BOOK SELECTION

As a precaution against including information which might not apply to the period prior to 1930—the period of all of the earlier data—it was thought desirable to omit the returns of all faculty members who had become connected with the institutions since 1929. Thus, of the 444 blanks received, 126 were omitted for this reason; the returns from 7 other faculty members, who indicated that they do not select books, were likewise omitted. The total number of blanks omitted was therefore 133, leaving 311 returns upon which the discussions in this section of the study are actually based. In all that follows, reference to the percentage of blanks returned means, unless otherwise indicated, the number actually used—that is, 311.

As a matter of fact, the inclusion of the 126 returns from faculty members whose tenure began subsequent to 1929 would have made almost no difference in any of the results, but it would have been open to question on logical grounds.

The eleven high-index institutions have a total of 377 faculty members, and the twelve low-index ones a total of 361; the means are 34.27 and 30.08, respectively. Over 72 per cent of the faculties of the first group and over 47 per cent of the faculties of the second group returned blanks. Inasmuch as only seven of all the blanks indicated that their authors did not carry on any book selection activities, it may be said that the two figures just

given represent the minimum percentages of these faculties which select books. The figures would be somewhat, though possibly only slightly, larger if returns had been received from all faculty members, since some of those not reporting likewise select books; that the figures might not be much larger is indicated by the fact that many of those not replying were from the departments of physical education, practical music (i.e., voice and musical instruments), or military training—departments which require few or no books. Instructors in these departments did not, as a rule, return blanks, probably because they do not select books to any great extent.

The difference between the percentages of the faculties of the two groups of institutions which returned blanks seems to be of peculiar significance.¹¹ It can scarcely be argued that the filling-out of a questionnaire shows a lack of good sense, and that this difference consequently indicates a higher degree of intelligence among the faculties of the low-index institutions than among those of the high-index ones. Even granting the possible theoretical validity of this argument, the contention is not easily upheld in the present case, at least. The blanks were distributed to the faculty members with the co-operation and backing of the presidents of the colleges. By way of illustration, the president's note which accompanied each blank in the case of one college may be quoted in part:

I am sending you a blank which Dean Wilson of the Graduate Library School . . . is anxious for us to fill. . . .

Ordinarily I would not agree to ask you to fill a blank of this kind. I do feel, however, that there is so much need for an authoritative study in this particular field that we can afford to take the time to fill this blank. I will appreciate it if you will fill it and return it to. . . . We will collect them and send them to Dean Wilson. . . .

This is the sort of request that a faculty member, active and interested in book selection, and appreciative of its importance in the work of the college, would be unlikely to ignore. The presidents of all of the institutions co-operated in the distribution of the blanks in more or less similar fashion. It is therefore

¹¹ The difference between the means of the two groups is 24.35 per cent—over 2.75 times the standard error of 8.85 and over 4 times the probable error of 5.96.

believed that the returns from the two groups of institutions afford a fairly reliable indication, not merely of the extent to which the faculty members select books but—what is more important—of the extent to which they are interested in and concerned with book selection and its problems. If this is so, there is a very marked difference between the faculties at the two groups of institutions, and some suggestions as to the probable importance of this difference are pertinent.

It must be evident that book selection is no passive, self-motivating activity which can be accomplished by a pious wish and a wave of the hand; it requires time, knowledge, intelligence, and, above all, the will to do. This last cannot be over-emphasized; without it, the presence of the other factors is worth nothing. Randall¹² has implied the indispensability of the will to select books and of the need for faculties to be made conscious of the importance of book selection. The difference between the proportions of the faculties of the high- and low-index colleges returning the question blanks seems to indicate greater activity and interest in book selection on the part of the instructional staffs of the high-index institutions.

If this deduction is justified, what is its significance? Simply this: Other factors being equal (and these factors will be discussed presently), the more members of a college faculty who are definitely interested in the bibliographical aspects of their subjects, especially with respect to the library's book collections, the more chance there is that those collections will be adequately built up. The argument might be advanced that it is better to have a dozen highly trained and competent faculty members do all the book selection than to have it done by a score or two, some of whom are presumably less highly trained and capable. The answer to this is that the experienced head of a department, for example, whose field of interest and instruction centers chiefly around two or three aspects of a subject—and probably the more advanced aspects of that subject—may not be as well fitted as another member of the department to select books which concern the subjects or courses taught by the assistant.

¹² *Op. cit.*, pp. 101-2.

Any professor, whether head of the department or not, must, of necessity, be less of a specialist—bibliographically as well as otherwise—in some phases of his subject than in others. The man who best knows the field of colonial history may be the head of the department; but if it is not he, then whoever does know that field best should have a hand in the selection of its books for the library. Further, the young instructor, a few years removed from graduate study, may be able materially to build up the library's collections by the suggestion of titles which have been overlooked or the value of which has not been recognized by other members of the department. The suggestions of the instructor or assistant professor may rightfully be subject to the approval of the department head and the scrutiny of the librarian, but the possibility of a certain percentage—even though a small one—of usable suggestions makes it desirable that every teaching member of the faculty at least be alert for, and able and willing to suggest, a title which seems to him important or desirable. The fallibility of human nature suggests, finally, that even the most competent and experienced of professors may occasionally overlook or neglect to order a good title, and that the more members of the faculty there are who pay attention to the publications in the various subject fields, the less likelihood there is that a worth-while title will not be acquired.

The data seem to indicate that the foregoing considerations are less well provided for in the low-index institutions than in the high-index ones.

Table III shows certain facts concerning the faculty members of the two groups of institutions. The items of this table are to be read as follows: Item 1: 62 per cent of the faculty members of the high-index colleges and 72 per cent of the faculty members of the low-index ones were full professors, etc.; Item 2: 11.2 per cent and 19.6 per cent of the faculty members of the high- and low-index groups, respectively, held Bachelors degrees only, and so on.

Considering Item 1 of the table, it will be seen that full professors accounted for 62 per cent of the returns from the high-

index colleges and 72 per cent of the returns from the low-index ones. Below the rank of full professor more than twice as many

TABLE III

PROFESSORIAL RANK, HIGHEST EARNED DEGREE, AND CERTAIN DATA REGARDING THE BOOK-SELECTION ACTIVITIES OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN ELEVEN HIGH-INDEX AND THIRTEEN LOW-INDEX INSTITUTIONS

FACTOR	PERCENTAGE OF FACULTY MEMBERS	
	Institutions Having the High-Index Libraries	Institutions Having the Low-Index Libraries
1. Professorial rank (187 faculty members from high-index institutions, 124 members from low-index institutions):		
a) Full professors.....	62.0	72.6
b) Associate professors.....	14.9	2.4
c) Assistant professors.....	17.6	14.5
d) Instructors.....	5.3	8.9
e) Not given.....	0.0	1.6
2. Highest earned degree (178 high index, 122 low index):		
a) Bachelor's.....	11.2	19.6
b) Master's.....	51.1	50.8
c) Doctor's.....	37.7	29.5
3. Extent of co-operative activity in book selection by faculty members:		
Selection done:		
a) Alone only.....	14.4	17.7
b) Alone or in co-operation with others.	12.9	21.7
In co-operation with:		
c) Other members of the department...	48.1	41.9
d) Department head.....	28.6	12.1
e) Library committee.....	15.1	19.3
f) Librarian.....	46.4	49.1
g) Other departments.....	7.5	4.8
4. Frequency of book selection (171 high index, 106 low index):		
a) Weekly, or oftener.....	5.8	1.8
b) 1-3 times a month.....	15.2	9.4
c) 1-3 times a semester.....	61.4	47.9
d) Once a year.....	17.5	40.5
5. Time spent in book selection (158 high index, 89 low index):		
a) 1-4 hours a week or more.....	18.9	14.6
b) 1-3 hours a month.....	50.0	38.2
c) 1-3 hours a semester.....	31.0	43.8
d) Less than 1-3 hours a semester.....	0.0	3.3

faculty members in the high-index group returned blanks than in the low-index group, though there is no such difference as this between the total numbers of instructors in these classes for the two groups. The percentage of returned blanks which came from faculty members below the rank of full professor is 38 for the high-index group and 27 for the low group. From these data it is again apparent that there is a greater diffusion of book-selection activity and interest among the faculties of the high-index institutions.

This fact is still further emphasized if, in this connection, the omitted returns be considered. Of the 79 from the high-index group omitted because of date, 27, or 34 per cent, were from instructors; whereas of 44 omitted returns from the low-index group, only 10, or 22 per cent, came from this rank. These figures would cause the present difference in favor of the low-index institutions, under the division "Instructors" of Table III, Item 1, to be turned into a difference in favor of the high-index group. Below the rank of full professor the omitted returns from the latter were 77 per cent of the total, as contrasted with 47 per cent for the other group. The omitted returns are valid evidence in this respect only, of course, on the assumption that the degree of diffusion of book selection among faculty members appointed since 1929 is approximately the same as among those appointed prior to that date. There is no reason to suppose that this is not the case, since there have been no changes affecting this aspect of faculty book selection since the date in question.

Neither the figures which have just been discussed nor those of Item 1 of Table III show, though they may suggest, the fact that faculty book selection is in several of the low-index institutions almost exclusively, and in a majority of them very largely, in the hands of department heads. This is not the case among the high-index colleges. Generally speaking, the result is that in the latter the library's book collections are built up with the benefit of the help and suggestions of a much larger percentage of the faculty. It seems difficult to understand why a man who is considered competent to teach in a given field should not also be thought competent to select books in that field (though this is not equivalent to saying that bibliographical knowledge or

ability accompanies teaching competence). The relative lack of general faculty interest and participation in book selection in the low-index colleges seems to be a highly important factor in the difference between the two groups.

From Item 2 of Table III it may be seen that a little over 11 per cent of those selecting books in the high-index institutions held no degree higher than a Bachelor's, whereas in the case of the low-index institutions the comparable figure is over 19 per cent; 37.7 per cent of the high-index group and 29.5 per cent of the low-index one held Doctor's degrees. The difference in the percentages of those in the two groups who hold Master's degrees, which may be considered a sort of middle ground, is negligible. The other two differences merit consideration, especially when it is remembered that the data shown in Item 1 indicated a larger percentage of returns from those below the rank of full professor in the high-index colleges than from the same groups in the low-index ones. In other words, the relative lack of book selection on the part of the rank and file of faculty members in the latter group ought to mean that a relatively larger percentage of those from whom returns were received would possess higher degrees and a relatively smaller percentage would possess the Bachelor's degree only, since it is to be expected that more full professors than instructors and assistant professors will have the Doctor's degree. But, as shown in Item 2, the high-index institutions have, even so, a significantly larger percentage of Doctors of Philosophy who select books, and a significantly smaller percentage of members who have no degree higher than the Bachelor's.

Of and for itself, the possession of a Doctor's degree does not, of course, necessarily indicate superior ability in book selection, any more than it assures superior teaching ability or superiority in other directions, which has frequently been assumed. Two points can, however, be made. The first is that, although the lack of library and bibliographical knowledge and training among candidates for higher degrees has been shown,¹³ this lack is not as great among candidates for the Doctor's degree as

¹³ Cf. Peyton Hurt, "The Need of college and university instruction in use of the library," *Library quarterly*, IV (July, 1934), 436-48.

among first- and second-year graduate students. The second point is that the person who has received a Doctor's degree is almost inevitably better acquainted with the literature of his subject and with the tools necessary for finding out about that literature than is the individual whose knowledge in this direction is no greater than is demanded by an undergraduate major leading to a Bachelor's degree. In the light of these two observations, the faculty members selecting books in the high-index institutions have, as a group, a distinct advantage over those of the low-index colleges, and appear to be better equipped for book selection from the point of view of probable bibliographical knowledge, at least.

Item 3 of Table III shows the extent to which the faculty members select books alone and in co-operation with certain other persons and agencies, the purpose of these data being to determine whether there is any difference between the two groups in the matter of general co-operation in book selection within the institutions. Only the first two divisions of this table are mutually exclusive, which means that a faculty member may conceivably be counted in each of the other five; many faculty members actually do select books in co-operation with several persons or agencies.

On the assumption that co-operation in book selection is desirable, it will be observed that there is some difference in favor of the high-index institutions in every division except division *f*; the negative difference in division *e*—co-operation with the library committee—may be considered to be an advantage in favor of the high-index group since, in the case of the low-index one, the word "co-operation" is a euphemistic one, and actually means decisions by the committee as to book purchases.

The differences shown in this item become more marked if (1) divisions *a* and *b*, and (2) divisions *c*, *d*, *f*, and *g* are totaled, in which case it appears that (1) 27.5 per cent of the faculties of the high-index institutions, as against 39.5 per cent of those of the low-index ones, select books alone some or all of the time, and that (2) 131 per cent cases of co-operation occur in the high-index group, as compared with 108 per cent cases among the

faculties of the low-index one. Though none of the individual differences are great, they are, when taken together, appreciable. The individual figures have, of course, little, if any absolute value, not merely because the differences are in most cases small, but also because an isolated situation, such as co-operation with the department head, for example, could not easily be assumed to be an important factor. Considered as a whole, however, these data seem to indicate a somewhat greater recognition—whether conscious or unconscious—of co-operative principles of book selection among the faculties of the high-index than among those of the low-index institutions. This implies a greater interest in book selection and a greater willingness to go to some trouble in selection; it implies, also, more consideration of book selection in its relation to the building-up of a library collection which will be a unified whole rather than a collection of separate titles chosen solely because of the individual, unco-ordinated desires of separate faculty members.

Item 4 shows the percentage of faculty members who select books at various frequencies. The figures given by the faculty members are, of course, approximations only, and those shown are, for both groups of institutions, understatements of the actual frequency of selection. One of the reasons for this is that a number of professors indicated great frequency of selection, but did so in essay form; as these replies were not comparable with, and could not be fitted into, the quantitative classification, a number of the "best" replies had to be omitted. A second reason is that a number of faculty members understood "book selection" to be approximately synonymous with "book ordering," whereas the term was used in its library sense to include all of the processes, such as the reading of reviews, the checking of titles, and so on, which go into book selection; hence the replies in a number of cases pertain to a part, rather than the whole, of book selection. But the data of Item 4 represent more of an understatement for the high-index than for the low-index group, since a larger percentage of the replies of the former fell under one of the two points just mentioned.

Because the figures are understatements of actual conditions,

they have no absolute meaning or value; as bases for comparison between the two groups they are, however, perfectly satisfactory. From this point of view, the faculty members in the high-index colleges show a distinct superiority over those of the low-index ones, if it may be assumed that, other things being equal, frequent book selection is better than infrequent selection. This assumption is not difficult to support, for the volume and frequency of publications, even within highly specialized subject fields, is today such that fairly regular attention is required to keep up even with the current output. In each of the divisions of Item 4, the faculties of the high-index group of institutions make a definitely better showing than do those of the low-index group. It is not the purpose here to go into the possible reasons for the differences between the two groups in this respect, but it is pertinent to point out that the data unquestionably indicate a greater attention to book selection among the faculties of the high-index colleges. This may or may not mean a greater conscious interest in the libraries' book collections as such, but in any case the differences indicated must inevitably have an effect upon those collections.

In similar fashion Item 5 shows the percentage of the faculties in the two groups of institutions who spend given amounts of time in book selection. Again, the figures are approximations; and, for the same reasons mentioned in the preceding section, the data undoubtedly represent understatements of the actual amounts of time spent by faculty members in both groups of institutions. As before, the understatement is greater for the high-index group than it is for the low, so that an analysis of the complete situation would, in all probability, show considerably larger differences between the two groups than actually appear. While the figures have no absolute value, they are of interest for purposes of comparison.

In view of what was said in the last section regarding frequency of selection, it would naturally be supposed that greater amounts of time would be spent in this activity by the faculties of the high-index colleges than by those of the low-index ones. The figures of Item 5 show this to be the case, and further em-

phasize the fact that greater attention is paid to book selection in the high-index institutions; this must have its effect upon the book collections of the libraries.

As in the case of the librarians, an attempt was made to determine to what extent the faculty members in these institutions use bibliographic and other aids to book selection. The problem is somewhat complicated by the fact that the faculty member, unlike the librarian, needs, in general, to be on the lookout for books in a very few, usually allied, fields only, and by the further fact that a considerable portion of the information which he needs about books will appear in special-subject journals or other aids. It would have been impracticable to compile and use a check-list which would include the five or six chief journals in each of the twenty-odd collegiate departments of instruction, if for no other reason than that well over half of these libraries subscribed to fewer than 140 periodicals of all kinds—a figure which obviously includes many magazines having no book selection value; consequently, most of the professors simply do not have regular access to any considerable number of special-subject periodicals. As a substitute, and to permit some indication of the use of this type of publication, the first two items in Table IV were included. This table shows the number and percentage of faculty members in the two groups using each of the designated aids, of which only those checked by ten or more professors in one or the other of the groups are given. Although specialized material in the various subject fields was not otherwise provided for, it may be mentioned that several of the specific titles included in the table, such as the *United States catalog*, the *Booklist*, the *Book review digest*, and the *New York times book review*, are wholly or nearly universal in scope so far as the subject matter of the books considered in them is concerned. The general usefulness of such titles to the individual book selector, whatever his field may be, and the special usefulness of the more technical periodicals or other aids, included as two groups in the first and second items listed in Table IV, validate the use of the data shown therein for purposes of comparison.

The items listed are obviously not of equal value or importance, and the indicated use of one of them, or of "Published and periodical bibliographies" may mean anything from 5 minutes' scrutiny to 5 hours or more of careful checking. Similarly, the indicated use of "Reviews of books in field" may mean the painstaking, periodic reading of half a dozen specialized journals or the irregular and cursory examination of a single one.

TABLE IV

USE OF BOOK-SELECTION AIDS BY 187 FACULTY MEMBERS IN HIGH-INDEX INSTITUTIONS AND 124 FACULTY MEMBERS IN LOW-INDEX INSTITUTIONS

BOOK-SELECTION AID	HIGH-INDEX LIBRARIES		LOW-INDEX LIBRARIES	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Reviews of books in field	175	93.6	98	79.0
Published and periodical bibliographies	161	86.1	93	75.0
Dealers' catalogs	147	78.6	96	77.4
<i>New York times book review</i>	68	36.3	28	22.6
<i>Shaw List</i>	47	25.1	11	8.9
<i>Saturday review of literature</i>	42	22.4	12	9.7
<i>United States catalog and Cumulative book index</i>	40	21.4	23	18.5
<i>Booklist</i>	27	14.4	12	9.7
<i>Book review digest</i>	22	11.7	12	9.7
<i>Books abroad</i>	19	10.2	6	4.8
<i>New York herald tribune books</i>	18	9.6	1	0.8
Books examined in other libraries	12	6.4	3	2.4

In one sense, these considerations apply equally to both the high- and the low-index groups, and consequently do not impair the use of the data as a relative measure. From another point of view, these considerations are not equally pertinent for both groups, since it has already been shown that the faculties of the high-index colleges are not only more frequent selectors of books but also spend more time in book selection. It follows, therefore, that the indicated use of book-selection aids is more intensive, as well as extensive, for the faculties of the high-index institutions as compared with those of the low-index ones.

The most obvious and significant disclosure of Table IV is to

be seen from a comparison of the two percentage columns, which show that each of the items listed was used by a higher percentage of the faculties of the high-index group than of the low-index one. In nearly all instances the differences are large, and in the case of several of the items the percentage of use among the faculties in the high-index group was more than twice as great as among those of the low-index one. The differences in the use by the two groups of book reviews in specific subject fields and of published and periodical bibliographies are especially worth noting because these collective divisions are so broadly inclusive; the faculty member who pays no attention to the reviews of books in his field is probably not doing as much as he could in the way of book selection, unless the remote possibility is assumed that he has the opportunity to examine personally all of the important books published in that field.

From the data of Table IV it is clearly apparent that the faculties of the high-index institutions make greater use of book-selection aids than do those of the low-index ones. This observation is supported and, indeed, still further emphasized in two other ways. The first of these is the indicated use of titles on the question sheet checked by fewer than ten faculty members and hence not included in Table IV. The ratio of this use is nearly 4:1 in favor of the faculties of the high-index group, although the total number of returns from this group are only half again as many as from the low-index group. In the second place, the use of additional titles, which were mentioned by the faculty members themselves and were mostly specialized publications in specific subject fields, was well over twice as great in favor of the faculties of the high-index group of institutions. In the light of these two supplementary facts, and bearing in mind that these faculties spend more time in book selection and do so more frequently, it is safe to say that the actual differences between the use of book-selection aids by the two groups are, not merely great, but substantially greater than is indicated by the data of Table IV.

Two more or less incidental points in connection with this table are worth noting. The first is that the percentage of use of

the various items listed tends to be closely related for the two groups (correlation, by Spearman's formula based on rank differences, $= .995 \pm .002$), which means that there is a high degree of agreement between the groups as to the relative importance of the listed items and points to the usefulness of the list as a measure for comparison. The second is that for both groups of institutions the indicated use of the aids included in the first three divisions is very much greater than that of any of the others. It is probably to be expected that the collective items, "Reviews of books in field," and "Published and periodical bibliographies," would be of most importance for the faculty member concerned with book selection; but the fact that these two *are* collective items warrants the belief that the figures given for them represent a considerable amount of duplication. In other words, the figures given for these two on the one hand, and for some of the specific titles on the other hand, are almost certainly not mutually exclusive.

SUMMARY

The study shows, for the librarians of the high-index libraries, as compared with those of the low-index ones: (1) better general education; (2) better professional education; (3) somewhat more college and university (as well as general) library experience; (4) less administrative activity on the part of the library committee, especially as regards book selection; (5) very much more direct responsibility for book selection and particularly responsibility for the systematic growth of the libraries' book collections; (6) time more frequently given to book selection; (7) greater amounts of time spent in selection; and (8) greater use of more book-selection aids. Taken together, these factors, all of which must be admitted to have a potential effect upon book selection, appear to go far in accounting for the difference between the two groups of libraries.

In similar fashion, the study shows, for the faculty members in the colleges having the high-index libraries as compared with those in the institutions having the low-index ones: (1) a larger proportion of members concerned with problems of book selec-

tion; (2) a larger proportion of members who actually select books; (3) a greater amount of selection done by members below the rank of full professor; (4) better education; (5) greater departmental co-operation in book selection; (6) time more frequently given to selection; (7) larger amounts of time spent in selection; and (8) greater use of more aids to book selection.

Again, these factors, considered as a unit, seem unquestionably to justify a causal inference. Combined with the factors regarding the librarians, they are amply sufficient to account for the differences between the indices of the two groups of libraries.

The experienced educator or librarian, asked to name the non-material factors which contribute to good selection, would probably mention many or most of those which this study has disclosed. If so, he would be making shrewd guesses, but his observations could be little more than that. It is hoped, therefore, that the results of the present objective examination may be of value to the liberal arts college library in a way that the opinions of even the most respected and well-informed educator or librarian might not be.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In connection with the section which follows, three considerations are to be noted. The first of these is that the differences disclosed in the study are not maximum ones; in fact, they might conceivably be found ranked toward the bottom of a scale which ranged from the most to the least satisfactory in book selection factors for all liberal-arts-college libraries in the country—assuming a controlled comparison between our best and worst college libraries to be theoretically possible. This is true because even among the best of the colleges and college libraries included in the study, few rank, in any of the factors which are commonly supposed to make for institutional excellence, with the finest of American colleges or college libraries. The colleges studied are similar in many important respects; if that similarity were less, and if the best of college libraries could be compared with the worst (rather than, as in the present case,

better with worse), the differences would undoubtedly be very much greater than those which the study reveals. From another point of view, the latter differences may not be considered maximum ones, since it has been pointed out that there is probably a greater actual spread between the high-index and the low-index institutions in certain respects than is shown in the formally presented data. To a certain extent, therefore, the recommendations implied in the data are to be thought of as minima rather than maxima.

A second, and absolutely essential, consideration is that neither good book selection *per se* nor the presence of any of the factors contributory to good selection will result in good book collections unless there are adequate funds for the purchase of books. Many of these libraries—possibly a majority of them—did not, even before 1930, have large enough book appropriations; reduced budgets since that time have resulted in still more unsatisfactory situations. Most of these libraries, however failing in the non-material factors which contribute to good book selection, would do better if they had more funds with which to work; this applies also to book selection by members of the instructional staffs.

A final consideration, which the writer records as a disclaimer, is that not all of the implications and recommendations which follow are original. A few have even been stressed over and over again by enlightened educators and librarians, but they follow so inevitably and so forcefully from the findings that it seems impossible to omit them here; possibly their inclusion in connection with the results of this study may serve to re-emphasize their importance and to hasten remedial action.

1. Before the college administrator can demand satisfactory book selection (or satisfactory performance in many other respects), it is incumbent upon him to make certain that financial support is adequate. There may have been a time when \$500 or \$1,000 or \$2,000 would buy all the books and periodicals which a college needed, but if so, that day is definitely past. If the administrator is wholly unable to provide adequate book (and other) funds for the library, he might better follow the advice of

some present-day educators¹⁴ and close his institution than attempt to continue with hopelessly inadequate financial support; the librarian may well concur in, or even urge, such a move, for he can scarcely be less well off than at present. The alternative of limiting or eliminating the departments above a presumed minimum and thus of better serving fewer departments would probably mean, in the case of the small college, that the institution would offer something less than a full liberal arts education.

2. Beyond adequate funds, what is most needed in many of these libraries, from the point of view of book selection, at least, is competent librarians—librarians who are aware of the place and value of books in the educational scheme, who understand their specific relation to the curriculum, who are equipped by training to find out about books, and who are willing to expend time and effort in doing so. The administrator will do well to consider that librarianship is no longer merely the custodianship of books, that its function is positively educational, and that it demands a person with certain well-defined attributes. Specifically, and based upon the findings of the present study, this means that, barring the exceptional circumstance, the administrator will be concerned to secure, if he does not already have, a librarian who has: (1) a college education; (2) a year or more of professional education; and (3) a modicum of college or university library experience.

The administrator should make certain that his prospective librarian has a knowledge of the purposes of the college, the curriculum, and the integration of the library with instruction. The administrator should also make it his business to find out how familiar and concerned with problems of book selection the librarian or prospective librarian is. When a suitable person has been secured, it should be made advantageous for him or her to remain at the institution long enough to develop and carry out—in co-operation with other members of the college personnel—a consistent, well-planned policy regarding the growth and function of the library.

¹⁴ Cf. e.g., John Dale Russell, "The College library as viewed by the administrator," *Library journal*, LX, No. 3 (February 1, 1935), 93.

3. To a capable, interested librarian the responsibility for a considerable part of book selection can and should be intrusted. This does not for a moment imply that the librarian should supplant the faculty member in the selection of books for course or other teaching needs. It does mean, however, that the librarian should be expected to question the omission of a possibly important title not asked for by the department of instruction concerned, or the inclusion of another title, if the library is already apparently able to supply the material; it does mean that the librarian should be the person chiefly responsible for the growth of the reference and general collections, and for the systematic development of the library's collections as a unified, correlated whole. All of this demands a high degree of co-operation between the librarian and the members of the instructional staff.

4. Under the conditions indicated above, a larger proportion of the book funds should be in the hands of the librarian than is now frequently the case. If departmental book budgets are to some extent accessible to the librarian for use in the purchase of books not requested by faculty members, or if the book budget is under the direction of the librarian and is not apportioned among the departments, this problem is solved. But if funds are divided among the departments, and if the departments themselves expect to spend every dollar of their appropriations, the librarian must be given a substantial sum from which to buy general and reference books—books which single departments cannot buy unaided, and those titles required to fill in gaps in the library's collections.

5. Preferably the library's book funds should not be inflexibly divided among the departments but, whether divided or not, should be kept sufficiently fluid to provide for the unexpected, expensive set or collection and an easy shift in emphasis as departmental or general library needs require. The practice of having unused portions of departmental or library book appropriations revert to the general college budget is indefensible in view of the fact that it gives neither the faculty nor the librarian any incentive to systematic or long-time planning and since it encourages last-minute, hurried, and unconsidered ordering.

6. Except in the case of a few of the colleges, all of which are in the high-index group, the faculty members as a class could be considerably more concerned with matters of book selection. The question immediately arises as to whether anything can be done to increase faculty interest and participation along this line. The answer may be in the affirmative. An artificial stimulus which seems to have been eminently successful was the grants given by the Carnegie Corporation to a number of college libraries for the purchase of books. Eight of the libraries included in this study received such grants. There is no doubt whatsoever that the increased opportunity and the possibility of being able to fulfil old needs and desires which these grants provided were of great direct benefit to the colleges. But the grants were possibly of even greater indirect value in focusing the attention of the faculty members (and librarians) upon the libraries' collections in an entirely new way. With funds available above and beyond the immediate and essential needs, the personnel concerned with book selection in these colleges was encouraged to plan and to undertake a certain amount of systematic development; more faculty members took a more active interest in book selection, and, in general, the library and books, in their relation to the educational process, became matters of more widespread concern.

There are obviously few occasions on which the college administrator is in a position to provide or secure exactly this sort of stimulus. A plan which ought to bring somewhat the same results and which does not carry with it the discouraging aspects of limited, temporary grants has been suggested by Randall.¹⁵ In the face of highly restricted book budgets, some such plan, whereby the members of the faculty are encouraged—even forced—to give real consideration to the library's book collections, seems the only answer. There is little to fire the imagination or to encourage the formulation of a broad policy of development in a \$100 appropriation which will do no more than take care of the most urgent needs, if that. On the other hand, a department, or group of departments, having a considerable

¹⁵ *Op. cit.*, pp. 102-5.

amount to spend once every few years may well be induced to undertake a periodic survey of the library's resources in specific fields, to plan ahead for the year when there will be a substantial sum to expend, and to outline and maintain a program of systematic development.

Even when relatively large sums of money are, as is usually the case, quite out of the question, and when temporary grants for book purchases are not available, the administrator might consider setting up an annual special fund which would be allocated—say in the spring of each year—to the department or division submitting either the most conclusive evidence of need or the most thoughtful plan for development of the book collection along certain lines. The advantage of such a fund, however small it might be—and in many of the smaller liberal arts colleges it might not exceed \$50 or \$100—would lie in the fact that it would provide precisely that incentive to planning and planned growth which is now so frequently lacking. The possibility of winning an extra sum of money—a special award, so to speak—for use above and beyond the essential needs of the day's work would tend to keep the members of the faculty alert to book selection and departmental book collections, and would instil a healthy spirit of competition among departments. It might likewise help to indicate which departments were doing less than they could in matters of book selection.

7. Closely allied to the foregoing, and especially to the statement that the faculty members, as a class, could be more concerned with the bibliographical aspects of their subjects, is the question of faculty competence in book selection. An increase in this competence is obviously desirable and, equally obviously, easier to talk about than to get. The bases for the appointment of faculty members is probably at the heart of the matter and, if so, the administrator's task is not a simple one. The bibliographical training and ability of prospective instructors are certainly seldom, if ever, looked into, though they should be, if instructors are to select books, as they must. Evidence of teaching ability and experience are ordinarily demanded of the prospective teacher. There is no less reason for the administrator to

be concerned to know something of the prospective instructor's qualifications as a selector of books. If such qualifications were made one of the bases of appointment, it seems highly probable that there would be more and better book selection done by faculty members in our colleges; it is also probable that more attention would come to be given to bibliographical training in teachers colleges and other institutions of higher education.

8. Something for which there seems to be a real place is a book-reviewing and book-noting journal directed specifically toward the needs of the college and the college library. The American Library Association *Booklist* is a useful publication; but it is intended primarily for the small and medium-sized public library, and its annotations are neither critical enough nor full enough to be of much value in college-library book selection. The *New York times book review*, the *Saturday review of literature*, and other book-reviewing media of this class, however excellent for the general adult reader, seldom approach the book with the needs of the undergraduate student in mind. Furthermore, most of these book-reviewing publications are more or less limited by their clientèle to the more popular type of treatment and subject matter. At the other end of the scale are the technical journals, giving valuable judgments concerning the desirability of a book for the professor's personal library but generally restricted to the specialized work and certainly not designed to be a guide to the selection of books for undergraduate reading.

The financing of a monthly college book-list would offer some difficulty, for, even if all of the eight hundred odd higher educational institutions in the country were to subscribe, such a journal would probably not pay for itself. Another difficulty, and no doubt just as serious a one, would be that of securing a group of competent reviewers—reviewers not merely competent in subject fields but also thoroughly acquainted with the needs and capacities of students who pursue the various courses of the college curriculum. The *Shaw List*—the largest and most comprehensive of the book-lists designed specifically for college library collections—has been seized upon by the librarians of the small-

er liberal arts college libraries as a pilot in unknown and difficult waters. In spite of the difficulties entailed in the publication of a college book-list periodical, it seems probable that an authoritative journal of this sort would fill such a need and would be of such use as to justify considerable effort.

PROBLEMS FOR FURTHER INVESTIGATION

A letter to the writer from a college librarian implies that college librarianship will not profit by objective analyses of its problems, practices, and procedures—at least of such elementary ones as those of book selection. To those who may be inclined to take exception to this opinion the writer offers the following suggestions for further study:

1. The technique used in this study might be extended to other classes of liberal arts college libraries—for example, those of 50,000–100,000 or 100,000–150,000 volumes, or those within other fixed limits in annual expenditures for books, e.g., \$10,000–\$15,000. For such studies the regression equation could be, and might have to be, extended to take care of additional variables: size of staff (or number of staff members active in book selection), separate treatment for accessions and annual book expenditures, and so on; or the number of staff members concerned with book selection, and factors regarding the library personnel, might be left to appear as a part of the findings.

2. The technique might be extended to include the measurement of other aspects of college librarianship, as, for instance, service to users of the library. Some study would be necessary to determine whether this would be possible, especially in view of the difficulty of setting up valid criteria for judging service, and in view of the presence of the highly important, but somewhat unmeasurable, personal factor. Nevertheless, the college library is important primarily with respect to the curriculum, and the service of the library should therefore be reflected in such tests as are being applied to instruction. The librarian, like the instructor, is primarily working through the curriculum. In so far as the curriculum does not come up to a theoretical ideal (and variation between individual students and student

bodies makes achievement of an ideal curriculum difficult, if not impossible), the service of the library is likewise in danger of being educationally less adequate than it should be. This may be true even when the librarian has wide latitude to fill in the gaps resulting from an imperfect curriculum (and hence imperfect faculty selection), for the library's book funds, and the librarian's interest must be primarily devoted to supplying the needs of the curriculum as it is.

3. All of this suggests the desirability of a study of book selection in the individual departments of the college. Such a study should include an analysis of the curriculum factors involved in the problem of selecting books which are not only intrinsically good but also well suited to the given department, the institution, and the students enrolled for specific courses. The study might also include a comparison of the titles selected by the librarian, by instructors at the librarian's suggestion, and by instructors individually.

4. Another study which seems to be indicated is one which would attempt to determine whether quality of library has any relation to, or makes any difference in, the education of the students in the institution. This would involve comparison of the reading records of students, their use of the library, the quality of undergraduates as determined by tests, and perhaps also an analysis of reading done after graduation if that could be secured. Such a study might be related to results of tests in several institutions, as well as to analyses of their curricula. By implication, the foregoing suggests the desirability of adequate, accurate records of student reading; such records are not now generally kept.

5. Along a different line, there seems to be a need for a thorough study of recreational, or non-curricular, reading. It is probable that librarians, as well as those concerned with the problems of the curriculum, have been too little concerned with this aspect of reading. It is also possible that when the librarian does think of extra-curricular reading he is thinking of about the same values which the student of the curriculum has in mind when he concerns himself with extending the curriculum to an

ideal which will really give the student a liberal education. In any case, it would be interesting to attempt to find out what kinds of books should be included in dormitory libraries, browsing rooms, on recreational reading lists, and the like; how much of such reading is really necessary to supplement the curriculum; and how effective the supplementing is. At present, the acquisition of reading materials of this sort is highly haphazard, and little, if any, attention is paid to their use or to an objective analysis of their real value.

6. Finally, there seems to be a place for a study which would show the average minimum amount which the liberal arts college offering the "normal" curriculum must spend annually for books, if it is to provide and maintain an adequate collection. There have been, of course, numerous suggestions as to what this amount should be; but even such of these suggestions as have been based upon objective analysis have not gone the whole way in providing for the two principal factors which make up the problem. The first of these, and the more difficult, has to do with the determination of what has constituted during the past few years, and what is likely to constitute in the near future, the book requirements for each of the college departments. In other words, what is a generous average for the number of books which art, chemistry, history, and so on, are going to have to buy. Once this had been determined it would be relatively easy to compute average book costs.¹⁶ A definitive study in this direction, if disseminated widely among the administrators of the small liberal arts college, might be instrumental in bringing about an amelioration of present conditions.

J. PERIAM DANTON

COLBY COLLEGE
WATERVILLE, MAINE

¹⁶ Cf. William M. Randall, "The College-library book budget," *Library quarterly*, I (October, 1931), 421-35.

CORPORATE AUTHORSHIP VERSUS TITLE ENTRY

A VALUABLE contribution to technical bibliography, with particular reference to the vexed question of corporate entry, appeared last year in *Public documents*,¹ the proceedings of the public documents round table at the Montreal meeting of the American Library Association. The author is James B. Childs, chief of the Division of Documents of the Library of Congress and a member of the American committee on revision of the Anglo-American cataloging rules; the title is "The Author entry for government publications."

Only the women behind the scenes, commonly referred to as catalogers, and a few teachers in library schools, who still aim to give instruction in bibliographic technique, have so far taken any notice of this study. In the days of Cutter, Dewey, Poole, Crunden, Billings, etc., it would have attracted general attention. It is difficult to close one's eyes to the fact that the last quarter-century has witnessed a marked change in the attitude of many leaders toward the purely bibliographic problems, which no longer appear to rank with the financial, economic, social, educational, psychologic, or even the mechanical aspects of the profession, in the eyes of the leaders who outline programs and play the most important part in our meetings. Judging by the contents of their library journals and the topics discussed at their meetings, European librarians are still concerned with the questions which also agitated the minds of American librarians a generation ago. Whether this is an indication of a more rapid advance of American librarianship, or the reverse, is a matter on which a librarian no longer in active service must refrain from expressing an opinion.

Since the days of Cutter and Dziatzko, perhaps even before

¹ *Public documents: their selection, distribution, cataloging, reproduction and preservation. Papers presented at the 1934 Conference of the American Library Association* (Chicago, 1935), pp. 103-28.

their time, the library world has been divided into two distinct and antagonistic camps as far as the recognition of corporate authorship is concerned. America, and, in some measure, Great Britain, and certain other European countries have agreed on recognizing societies, institutions, government departments, bureaus, and offices, even congresses and conventions, as authors of their publications. The German, Austrian, Swiss, and Dutch librarians, with some scattering support from the Scandinavian and other countries, have steadfastly adhered to the thesis that only persons may be regarded as authors—publications of societies, institutions, and other corporate bodies to be classed with the *anonyma*.

The adherents of corporate entry will, no doubt, concede that their Germanic colleagues have succeeded in escaping much mental labor and intensive study, and also, what may to many seem the most important of all, saved much time and money by dodging the many confusing problems resulting from effort to arrange publications of corporate bodies under the names of such bodies. On the face of it, it appears to be a simple matter this—to enter the proceedings of a learned academy, the catalog of a college or university, the report of a government bureau, or even the transactions of an international congress, under the name of the society, academy, university, or congress. So it probably appears to the average administrator, anxious to cut costs, but without intimate knowledge of the problems involved, and who, for this reason, has thus far abstained from asking the rather pertinent question, "If German and Austrian librarians can save vast sums of money by relegating the publications of corporate bodies to the class, *anonyma*, and still administer their libraries to the satisfaction of their respective constituencies, why must we go on spending years and years of time and hundreds of thousands of dollars in deciding whether we are dealing with a society or an institution; whether an institution is to be entered under its own name, the name of the country or municipality which supports it, the place of location, or as a subhead under some larger or more comprehensive institution of which it forms a part or with which it is in some way affiliated? Why bother our heads about such a trifling matter as

whether Mr. Childs did a given piece of bibliographic work on his own time and at his own expense, and accordingly to be entered under his name; or on government time and at government expense, and therefore to be entered under the institution which pays him a salary? Surely catalogers must be a queer and somewhat irresponsible lot when they can spend hours upon hours of their official and even unofficial time in efforts, often vain, to differentiate between government-owned or privately owned institutions; in deciding whether a government office is to be entered directly under the name of the country or is to form a subdivision under another department or bureau; whether an observatory, a library, or museum is to stand on its own and be entered under its name, or, because of some government support or affiliation, under a country, city, or another institution. And then consider the discussions all these years as to the proper way of entering institutions which bear the name of some benefactor—under his forename or surname; or the many complications and difficult decisions arising from changes in names, new affiliations, and the many changing conditions which affect the status and generally also the name of a society, an institution, or a government department. One would think that library assistants, concerned with the arduous and somewhat thankless task of cataloging books, prints, maps, music, etc., would have difficulty enough in solving the many confusing and trying puzzles arising in connection with personal names of all countries and periods, changes due to marriage, with titles of nobility, names in religion, pseudonyms, surnames, compound names, prefixes, classical and oriental writers, joint authorship, etc., etc., without doubling or trebling their burdens, and, incidentally, the cost of their labors, by following the lead of Cutter rather than that of Dziatzko and his school.

In 1904, when the venerable vice-librarian, later chief librarian of the University of Upsala, Axel Anderson, represented Sweden at the International Library Conference at St. Louis, he told the present writer that he had once been practically converted to the American plan, and had obtained permission to change entries in the university library catalog for publications of corporate bodies from title entry to entry under their names,

or, in case of government publications, to the country or city which issued them. After two years of hard and assiduous labor he had, however, come to the conclusion that the future cost of carrying on the system would be too great, and that his conscience would not permit him to place such burdens on the shoulders of his successors. He was, therefore, compelled to spend much of his official as well as his leisure time during the next years in undoing what had so far been accomplished.

Dr. Anderson is not the only librarian in the Germanic group who has had visions of improvement in his catalog through the adoption of corporate entry. From time to time voices have been raised, even in *Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, and at the conferences of German librarians, in favor of the American plan. The older and more conservative librarians, faithful adherents of the Dziatzko school, have so far had little difficulty in squelching these proposals. That compromise suggestions, aiming to supply some record of the publications of a society, institution, or government department by means of references from the name of the corporate body to main entry under title, have proved abortive is not to be wondered at. Determination of heading for the reference would practically offset the saving achieved through title entry.

The writer received his first instruction in corporate entry forty-five years ago in the Newberry Library, his instructors being Edith Clarke, Charles Alexander Nelson, and, incidentally, George Watson Cole, and Dr. George Wire—of whom all but one had been members of the first class to graduate from an American library school. In spite of the fact that the director of that school, Melvil Dewey, and C. A. Cutter, the father of the dictionary catalog and chief exponent of corporate entry, were, by no means, of one mind on cataloging and classification questions, the importance and desirability of following what is known as Cutter's Fifth Plan had evidently been impressed on the students of the school, for this was the plan advocated by them for the first catalog of the Newberry Library. When Lane's report of 1893² showed that the same plan was favored

² American Library Association. *Papers prepared for the World's Library Congress, held at the Columbian Exposition (1896)*, pp. 835-49.

by a decided majority of the larger libraries of America, it is not surprising that the writer had little hesitation in adopting it at the University of Wisconsin in 1893, and four years later, with some modifications, at the Library of Congress. He is fully aware of the fact that in so doing, in view of the influence of the printed cards prepared and distributed by the Library of Congress, and also the adoption, almost without change, of the rules for corporate entry elaborated at that library, 1897-1907, by the catalog rules committees of the American and British library associations, he is in some measure responsible for the maintenance and spread of Cutter's plan. The question, therefore, naturally presents itself: In view of our experience since 1890, does the increased efficiency of our catalogs warrant the continuance of corporate entry as prescribed in the *Anglo-American Code*..

Some years ago the writer would without hesitation have answered in the affirmative. Today he feels more doubtful. The fact cannot be ignored that as catalogs increase in size, and societies, institutions, and government offices grow in number, size, and comprehensiveness, becoming also more involved and complicated, the cost of maintaining entries for such bodies will increase accordingly. When one considers also the diminishing interest in cataloging and evident lack of appreciation of the more technical problems of bibliography on the part of librarians and many library schools, and the consequent decrease in the number of persons qualified to deal with the difficult decisions to be made day by day, then one begins to wonder if, after all, our Germanic colleagues may not have shown more vision and foresight in refusing to become entangled in this labyrinth of corporate entry than did Cutter and his followers.

In his study Mr. Childs deals almost exclusively with the rules that prescribe for entry of government publications. Incidentally, he calls attention to one feature to which few librarians have given much thought. It is the increasing number of institutions, commissions, and organizations of various kinds wholly or in part supported by government funds. To enter all of them under country would obviously lead to an almost intolerable congestion of divisions and subdivisions under the names of

large countries. Moreover, it would place the entries where the average person could hardly be expected to look for them. As illustrations are mentioned: Reconstruction Finance Corporation, American Historical Association, British Broadcasting Corporation, Canadian National Railway Company, Istituto nazionale delle Assicurazioni—all under government control and supported by government funds. As the best illustration of a country where practically every economic enterprise is under government control, he cites the Soviet Union. To enter all the departments, offices, institutions, boards, commissions, etc., under "Soviet Union" would not be practicable. A line must be drawn as between departments, bureaus, and similar offices to remain under country, and those to be entered under their names or the name of the district, city, or town where they are located.

In a restatement of rules 58-71 of the *Anglo-American Code*, Mr. Childs has made an effort to differentiate between the two groups of bodies indicated and to lay down certain guiding principles as an aid to librarians and bibliographers who must decide on the entry of some new government office or agency. The catalog rules revision committees of the British and American library associations, as well as all librarians who attempt to follow the Anglo-American rules, owe Mr. Childs a debt of gratitude for his able presentation of the problem and the many excellent illustrations provided.

The present and future complexities of corporate entry would appear less formidable had we the assurance that our National Library would always have on its staff a sufficient number of persons as capable and devoted as those who during the last quarter-century and more have given their best in order that the bibliographic records, not only of the Library of Congress, but of some five thousand other libraries and the Lord only knows how many other bibliographic enterprises of one sort or another, some published, most unpublished, might reach a high standard of accuracy and reliability. In this connection there comes to mind two assistants, who, after their graduation from college and library school and a year or two in a New York library, came to Washington about thirty-four years ago. They

showed marked ability, and each was soon intrusted with a particular section of the literary output then received by the library. After a few years of close application, and profiting, no doubt, by the constant help and advice of Charles Martel, their chief, each became an expert in the particular field assigned. The results of their labors during a generation have been absorbed in a million and a half entries prepared and distributed by the Library of Congress. Two or three years ago the writer made some effort to trace their work in a bibliographic undertaking which has since gained considerable reputation. As nearly as he could ascertain, fully 70 per cent of the entries were virtual reproductions of printed cards, the copy for which had originally been prepared by these assistants, even the proof having been read by them. That they received no acknowledgment in the publication in question has probably bothered them very little—less, no doubt, than it did the present writer, who still feels that compilers of bibliographic lists who build up a reputation largely on the basis of data obtained from the Library of Congress catalog, might, at least, give some credit, if not to individuals, at any rate to the institution. A little personal recognition now and then would do much to render the labors of these devoted servants more attractive, and do much to insure capable substitutes for those who must drop out from time to time. Given a force of experienced assistants at the National Library, the average American library might face the future of corporate entry with equanimity, for, by this time, it must be clear to most that without a central agency to assume direction and point the way in the solution of many of the knotty problems sure to arise, consistency and harmony of decision as between different libraries and consequent ability to profit by one another's work will be out of the question. Witness, for instance, the situation which has arisen because of the absence of a definitive and authoritative statement on arrangement, failure to understand the underlying principles that guided Cutter and the other rule-makers, and, in some instances, the misguided zeal of generous-minded catalogers and reference assistants on behalf of the young and the immature.

In spite of the higher cost of cataloging sure to result from

continued adherence to the rules for corporate entry as prescribed in the Library of Congress rules and the Anglo-American *Code*, and the probable scarcity of catalogers capable of maintaining present standards, no immediate trend away from Cutter is anticipated. In fact, it would not be surprising if a friendlier attitude toward corporate entry should manifest itself in some of the Germanic countries. Rejection of the principle of corporate authorship would necessarily call for substitution of title entry. One who reads paragraphs 186-205 of the *Instruktionen* finds that even title entry has its difficulties. Moreover, the dictionary catalog with its subject, title, catchword, and form entry features should prove more satisfactory than the German plan of entry under the first substantive in the nominative with the numerous exceptions stipulated.

For purpose of illustration, let us take the following examples cited in the *Instruktionen*: (1) Paragraph 186, third example: Field Columbian Museum. PUBLICATION. According to the German rule, entry is under "PUBLICATION," no reference specified from name of the Museum. According to Anglo-American rules, entry is under "Field." Some libraries may make additional entry under title, form entry under "Societies," with subject entry under "Science-Societies" for all dictionary catalogs besides the customary analytical separate entries for author and subject series and monographs. (2) Paragraph 200, fourth example: Neues SCHUL-REGLEMENT für die Universität Breslau. . . . According to *Instruktionen*, entry is under "SCHUL-REGLEMENT," no reference from name of university. According to Anglo-American *Code*, entry is under "Breslau. Universität," provided, of course, that the publication is issued by the university. There would be no reference from "Schul-Reglement," and no subject entry if main author entry is under the university. (3) Paragraph 202, third example: First annual REPORT of the board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution. *Instruktionen* here makes main entry under "REPORT," no reference specified from "Smithsonian." Anglo-American *Code* places the entry under "Smithsonian"; the dictionary catalogs adding subject entry under "Science-Societies," and, in some

cases, also form entry under "Societies," or "Academies"—the latter term preferred in some British libraries.

German librarians may argue that it is by no means certain that users of the catalog will not refer to "Publication" rather than "Field"; "Schul-Reglement" rather than "Breslau"; and "Report" instead of "Smithsonian." That this argument has some force is granted. The writer recalls from his own experience more than one learned professor or intelligent student who has turned from the card catalog in disgust after prolonged search under "Dictionary" or "Grammar" for a dictionary or grammar of the English language, the reference or explanatory card which instructs the user to turn to the name of the language for a dictionary or grammar of that language having evidently been overlooked. He has also a vivid recollection of his first attempt to consult a card catalog at Cornell University in 1888. He wished to see a catalog of Columbia University, and after a vain search through all the entries under "Catalog" and "Catalogs," he finally summoned sufficient courage to ask the assistant at the reference desk. He then and there received his first lesson in corporate authorship, being informed that a catalog of an institution must be looked for under the name of the institution which issues it, not under "Catalog" or "Catalogs."

By this time, however, experienced librarians and reasonable students alike admit that a catalog, particularly a card catalog of a sizable library, is an instrument the use of which must be mastered. A laborer can without much instruction get fairly good results from a wheelbarrow. It is a different matter when he is confronted with an airplane or even a motor car. When the latter have been mastered, however, the results obtainable are infinitely superior to any possible through the operation of a wheelbarrow.

The contribution which Mr. Childs has made to the meager literature on corporate entry suggests the possibility of a revision of the Anglo-American rules through co-operative efforts of the members of the two committees and other experts, the results to be revised and co-ordinated by the chairmen and the central authorities in London and Washington. On the basis of

these contributions a trial edition may be issued similar to the advance edition of the A.L.A. *Catalog rules* printed by the Library of Congress in 1904. Let us assume, for instance, that Miss Pierson, of the Library of Congress, re-write the rules for societies and institutions; Miss McNair, of the same institution, those for periodicals and serials; Miss MacPherson, of Columbia University, those for certain other sections of title entry—to mention only a few of the American librarians qualified for the task—then the British librarians would, no doubt, be willing to do their share, particularly in the field of personal author entry. Perhaps Mr. Ansteinsson might be persuaded to write the chapter on subject entry, the Norwegians being vitally interested in a new revision. As for arrangement, to which a new chapter must be devoted, the American Library Association might well offer a prize for the most precise and authoritative statement on the subject—one which would tend to bring some sort of order and cohesion out of the chaotic conditions observed in many libraries, particularly in the dictionary catalogs which combine author, title, form, and subject entries in one alphabetic sequence.

Finally, let it be decided now, once for all, whether the aim of the new edition shall be to cut costs through simplification of rules, particularly in the sections on corporate and title entry, or to maintain or even raise present standards. In other words, is a return to the wheelbarrow stage preferable to an effort to meet the demands of the future along lines already pointed out by the Library of Congress and Vatican Library? The mandate given the American committee in 1901 was to draw up rules for large and scholarly libraries. As far as the writer knows, the present committee has received no mandate or instruction that would indicate the character of the revision desired. Under the circumstances, the committee will have to proceed on its own initiative and according to its best judgment. That this will mean adherence to the principles laid down by Mr. Childs in his revision of rules 58-71 seems a foregone conclusion. Of course much will depend on the stand taken by the British Library Association and its committee.

J. C. M. HANSON

SISTER BAY, WISCONSIN

THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

THEODORE DAY BECKWITH, chairman of the department of bacteriology at the University of California at Los Angeles, was born in Utica, New York, in 1879. He received his B.S. and M.S. degrees from Hamilton College in 1904 and 1907, and his Ph.D. from the University of California in 1920.

From 1904 to 1907 Dr. Beckwith was scientific assistant of the United States Department of Agriculture; from 1907 to 1910, assistant professor of bacteriology and plant pathology at North Dakota Agricultural College; professor of bacteriology there, 1910-11; assistant botanist at the Experiment Station, 1907-11. From 1911 to 1920 he served as head of the department of bacteriology and as the bacteriologist at the Experiment Station at Oregon State Agricultural College. In 1920 he was appointed associate professor of bacteriology at the University of California, and in 1932 he accepted the appointment to his present position in Los Angeles. Dr. Beckwith is an active member of many science societies and the author of numerous articles on scientific subjects.

J. PERIAM DANTON: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, IV (1934), 113. Dr. Danton has recently been appointed librarian of Colby College, Waterville, Maine.

JAMES CHRISTIAN MEINICH HANSON: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, IV (1934), 113, 127-30.

THOMAS MARION LIAMS: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, II (1932), 421.

JOSEPH LEWIS WHEELER was born in Boston in 1884. He studied at Brown University where he received his first experience in library work as a student assistant and later as second assistant librarian in Brown University Library. In addition to his Ph.B. and M.A. degrees, which were granted to him at Brown in 1906-7, Mr. Wheeler also holds a Bachelor's and Master's degree in library science from New York State Library School.

During 1904-6 Mr. Wheeler acted as evening custodian of the art and industrial departments of the Providence (Rhode Island) Public Library. From 1909 to 1911 he was assistant librarian of the Public Library of the District of Columbia; the following year he was the librarian of the Jacksonville (Florida) Free Public Library. In 1912 he accepted the position of assistant librarian of the Los Angeles Public Library, which he left in 1915 to become librarian of the Youngstown,

Ohio, Public Library. Since 1926 Mr. Wheeler has been librarian of the Enoch Pratt Free Library.

Mr. Wheeler has done much to advance the library profession through his service as a member of numerous boards, committees, and commissions. To mention but a few: he has served as a member of the Vermont and Maryland library commissions, is a trustee of the Peale Museum in Baltimore, Maryland; has served in an advisory capacity to the Public Affairs Information Service; was at one time president of the Ohio Library Association; is a member of the American Council on Education and of the National Council for Social Studies; was first vice president of the American Library Association (1926), in whose affairs he has always taken a most active part; and he is an advisory editor of the *Library quarterly*.

Mr. Wheeler is the author of *United States reading courses* (1919), *The Library and the community . . .* (1924), the chapter on buildings in the *Yearbook of librarianship* (London, 1929), and *Science booklists* for the American Association for the Advancement of Science (1931).

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, IV (1934), 496. Dr. Willoughby has begun his new duties as chief bibliographer of the Folger Shakespeare Library in Washington, D.C.

THE COVER DESIGN

WOLFGANG HOPYL came from The Hague or its immediate neighborhood and established himself in Paris in or before 1489. He remained, however, in close touch with his native country, printing books in the Flemish language, books by Dutch authors, and finally issuing, for the use of the diocese in which he was born, the beautiful Utrecht Missal. Although he was a good printer from the mechanical and artistic aspects of his craft, Hopyl's chief claim to fame lies in the accuracy of his compositors and the skill of his learned press-correctors. Indeed, he boasted that even if he were given a faulty manuscript, he could turn out an almost flawless book, and this claim was acknowledged by his contemporaries. Not only in Paris, but even from distant cities and foreign countries, publishers sent him books to be printed when they desired an accurate and scholarly job. He, no doubt, helped to pave the way for the great scholar-printers of sixteenth-century Paris.

In his business Hopyl was closely connected with Jean Higman. They specialized in the printing of books of philosophy, theology, and mathematics, and of missals. Hopyl remained active until 1522.

The mark which Hopyl employed in the fifteenth century is reproduced on the cover. It shows two dogs holding over a tree stump a shield, in the middle of which is a tree; on the right of this is a stork (taken no doubt from the arms of The Hague), and on the left is the printer's monogram and four "W's"; all surmounted with flowers. Around the mark is the motto, "*Munere vivit amor. Celat sua furta Venus*"—Love lives by duty but impure passion conceals itself.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY

ANNOUNCEMENT

With the January, 1936, number of the *Library quarterly* there will be issued a subject index to the first five volumes (1931-35).

REVIEWS

The Government of the American public library. By CARLETON BRUNS JOECKEL. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. xix+393. \$3.00.

Professor Joeckel's intellectual approach to his subject is an authoritative one both by reason of his academic training and his experience as librarian and educator. To an A.B. degree from the University of Wisconsin he has added a B.L.S. from the New York State Library School, an M.A. in political science from the University of Michigan, and a Ph.D. from the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago. He is the professionally educated and successful library administrator turned professor; the librarian become political scientist. The library profession is now the beneficiary of his experience through this publication of his doctoral thesis. For the first time we have a thorough study of the public library in its governmental relations.

Dean Wilson's Foreword notes that this is one of several studies undertaken at the Graduate Library School to meet the need for adequate information to enable librarians to evaluate the services of the library to the community, to clarify the library's relationship to other agencies of the government, and to convince the taxpayer of the library's right to adequate support. As Dean Wilson states, Professor Joeckel

... has undertaken to describe, analyze, and evaluate the position of the public library in the structure of government in the United States. He has dealt with the legal forms and types of governmental organization of the public library and with its relation to the city or other political unit to which it is attached or which it serves, and has considered the library primarily as a piece of government machinery and its efficiency as such, rather than the practical problems of its internal administration.

Professor Joeckel states his objectives thus:

First of all, an attempt has been made to define and to describe accurately the various types of library government as they are found in the United States today. . . . Second, an effort has been made to evaluate each type of library in terms of its strength and weakness and of its advantages and disadvantages. Finally . . . the future possibilities of the public library as a function of government have been considered. Throughout, particular attention has been given to the essential legal nature of the library and to the question of its position as a matter of state or local concern.

In discussing the types of public library organization, the author has chosen to classify them according to the type of managing authority and by the kind of governmental unit of which the library is a part. This results in the specific consideration of public libraries controlled by corporations and

associations (chap. iii), school-district public libraries (chap. iv), municipal libraries without boards (chap. v), municipal libraries managed by boards (chaps. vi-vii), and county and large-unit libraries. Because of the nearly universal employment of the library board as a controlling agency, Mr. Joeckel gives an entire chapter to an appraisal of its importance as a piece of governmental machinery. In connection with the large-unit libraries he devotes a chapter to suggestions for the solution of the regional problem and concludes his book with a chapter discussing the library's future governmental relations.

One is tempted to linger both in the reading and in the reviewing over the first two chapters giving the backgrounds and legal basis of the present-day public library in America. Suffice it to say, however, that "survivals" are carefully traced and their significance clearly indicated. Both chapters prove the author's early statement that our public library history displays the curious paradox of an institution which has been increasingly liberal in the development of services to the people, managed by authorities "immensely conservative in their reluctance to alter the traditional forms of library organization."

While the volume under review is concerned with the government of the public library, the author wisely calls attention even in the early chapters to the evolution in our cultural development paralleling the growth of the public library movement, to the desirability of viewing the governmental history of the library movement from 1850 on as a phase of the development of municipal government in general, and to the importance that should be attached to the steady development of the idea of free, tax-supported education generally.

In discussing the legal basis of the public library Professor Joeckel shows the highly varied legal structure on which library service rests. He emphasizes the importance of understanding the exact legal foundations in any given case and the relation of general law to the specific situation in which a library may find itself. The traditional desire of the library administrator for independence and autonomy is manifest in all the varieties of legislation under which libraries are founded and operated. This chapter contains vital suggestions for improving library legislation, discusses the question of uniform library legislation most sensibly, and presents the controversial question of federal relations, especially federal aid, in a straightforward, rational, unimpassioned manner deserving the thoughtful consideration of the entire library profession.

Specific recommendations at this point are that "state library laws include a preamble briefly stating the objectives of the state in providing for a system of public libraries and making clear the state's concern in library service"; that all clauses relating to the powers and duties of the library board be grouped together and that actual powers be clearly stated in itemized form;

that within a state "as much uniformity as possible in the form of library organization be secured through carefully considered legislation of general application to libraries."

It is difficult for one in the Middle West or on the Pacific Coast to realize that over one-sixth (i.e., 56) of the public libraries in American cities of over 30,000 population are of the "corporation" or "association" type, and to grasp the significance of this as a fact in the American library world. Furthermore, there are over 540 such libraries in cities of population under 30,000. Professor Joeckel, in his chapter on these institutions, defines these two types of library organizations, classifies and distributes geographically the American public libraries which belong in this group, presents their forms of organization in detail, discusses the powers and composition of their boards, the position of their library staffs, their financial administration, and the problem of the adequacy of the public support which they receive. He concludes with a summary of the arguments for and against this type of public library management, stating frankly and courageously his own views and recommendations.

Forty pages are devoted to the highly important school-district public libraries so prominent in Ohio, Michigan, and Indiana. Specifically considered are the legal nature of such institutions, their development and distribution, the relative advantages of separate library boards or direct control by the board of education, etc. In this survey of school-district public libraries the author finds that "little or no evidence of a real philosophy of public education, broad enough to include the library, has been shown by the boards of education in any of the cities here studied." Not infrequently those in charge of education view their functions as school functions rather than as educational functions in the broader sense. Professor Joeckel believes that the whole scene would change for the better if school boards generally would adopt a more sympathetic attitude toward the problem of adult education and their responsibility with respect to it.

If school men and school boards have come in for some criticism in the chapter just discussed, the author's library colleagues as a group have not been spared in his opening paragraph to the chapter on "Municipal libraries without boards." In noting that the library has remained little affected by reforms in municipal government, Professor Joeckel writes:

If it is too much to say that library leaders have actively resisted change in the structure of government as it affects the library, it is, on the contrary, too little to say that they have been suspicious and distrustful of new forms. Actually, they have fought to retain the old forms and have been fearful of experiment. That the pattern which they have most often wished to retain has not been suited to the newer fashions has concerned them very little.

So few are the cities in which library boards are lacking, especially among the council-manager group, that experience with this type of library management does not as yet warrant any conclusions. The determining factor in this

situation will be the attitude of the individual manager himself and his own tenure of office.

Phases of board management for municipal libraries receive detailed consideration in three consecutive chapters. These are concerned, first, with problems of board organization—membership and tenure; second, with powers, functions, and duties; and, third, with a careful evaluation of the board system of library management. It appears that 283 libraries in the 310 cities with populations of more than 30,000 are under board management, as are approximately three-fourths of the 3,000 public libraries in the country with 3,000 volumes or over whose statistics are regularly tabulated by the United States Office of Education. Though there are self-perpetuating boards, elected boards, library boards appointed by boards of education or by a city manager, the majority are appointed by the chief executive of the city, or by the council or other governing body. It is practically universal (except for Los Angeles) that library-board members receive no compensation for their services. Among the conclusions reached are these (summarized):

1. Boards are most appropriately appointed by the mayor or governing body.
2. It is difficult to fix by legislation all necessary requirements for board membership without producing hampering restrictions.
3. If there is to be a library board, its strength should be sufficient to enable it to function with real authority.
4. Strong and independent boards are more likely to result in first-rate libraries than are boards that are weak or of limited powers.
5. Library boards should not have taxing power.
6. Only the governing body or the people themselves should determine the question of bond issues for library buildings.

In listing the powers desirable for library boards, it is interesting to note that the author includes "general control of the library staff," without reference to civil service.

A distinct contribution (only one of many in this volume) to our professional library literature is the chapter appraising the library board as a governmental agency. The author considers, first, aspects of personnel (sex, age, length of service, education of members, their occupation, their economic and social backgrounds, geographical representation, political considerations, other governmental and community interests, religious affiliations, the value of their individual services), and, second, in detail, both the assets and the liabilities of the library-board system. Professor Joeckel concludes thus:

On its record, the library board, in most cities, at least, has earned the right to survive. The considered judgment of a keen student of government may be paraphrased by concluding that to scrap the services of these bodies of competent and public-spirited citizens "in the interest of . . . administrative uniformity is folly."

These three chapters, like the earlier one on the legal basis of the public library, will be of the greatest importance to communities amending or revising the library provisions of their city charters, or to legislative bodies proposing new library laws.

The next chapters on larger units of library service bring up newer problems involving not only government and administration but also political theory and social philosophy. The county library naturally receives first consideration here, but the real problem is that of providing library service for the forty-five million people living in governmental areas which have no such service at all. The chief obstacle to a satisfactory development of regional library service is the fact that population areas needing service are not identical with the political divisions (geographical areas) which may legally be taxed to provide support for it. A proper balance in distribution of either costs or service between localities united in a regional library system is difficult if not impossible under present conditions. Nowhere has it been stated more frankly or explained more clearly that a consolidation of library units into a larger regional area will *not* reduce expenditures for library purposes, the chief reason being that the larger library unit will almost certainly contain territory that has never before had such service. The argument for consolidation rests definitely on efficiency and better service rather than on financial savings.

The questions of service in metropolitan areas, across county boundary lines, to whole states as a unit, and even across state boundary lines, are most interestingly and constructively discussed.

Before beginning his chapter on suggestions for a solution of the problem of library regionalism Professor Joeckel asks this question: "Is it not possible so to organize one governmental activity that it may be able to serve the people generally in a rational and unified manner?" The chapter devoted to answering this question is another of those which the reviewer would like to incorporate in full into his review because of its unusual importance and the excellence of the discussion. Before stating his final conclusions on the matter the author offers, in three finely printed pages, definite "Suggested provisions for a regional library law," and presents clearly and impartially the strongest arguments against the regional idea of library service as well as a summary of the advantages as he views them. Professor Joeckel's conclusions challenge librarians to a consideration of the problem on broader lines than many are accustomed to follow.

The final chapter on "Future relations of the library and government" summarizes what has gone before most effectively, offers an evaluation of types of library government, and indicates the direction in which the library may well move with respect to future municipal relationships, its relation to public education, to the state, and to the national government. In the matter of the form of library control, the author sees little reason to change traditional models, except perhaps in detail. Improvement rather than change should be sought.

Regarding the library unit and the governmental level of the library, he concludes: "It would be contrary to the whole history of American libraries to expect that this result will be achieved by uniform methods in all parts of the country."

The entire volume is most readable; the style, lucid. Frequent summaries and "conclusions" aid the reader materially in keeping the continuity clearly in mind. The work is crammed with facts, thoroughly substantiated. Its opinions and recommendations are clear cut and well defended; stimulating, often challenging. Students of government and public officials generally, as well as library trustees, library administrators, educators, and school authorities, will not only profit by a study of the volume in hand but will find therein well-considered reasons for working together to make more effective their respective activities on behalf of the people they mutually serve.

Finally, this volume offers substantial proof of the conviction, long held by the reviewer but being demonstrated all too gradually, that library work has numerous aspects in the realms of both administration and service the thorough investigation of which by competent students would justify the award of the Ph.D. degree by the academic world and, at the same time, provide the library profession with valuable treatises of a distinctly vital and practical character.

JOHN BOYNTON KAISER

PUBLIC LIBRARY, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

Public library buildings: their financing, design, construction, equipment, and operation. By DANA QUICK McCOMB. Los Angeles: Privately printed and sold by Mary Q. McComb, 2901 South Hobart Blvd., Los Angeles, 1935. Pp. 325. \$5.00.

It should be noted that Mr. McComb did not include "planning" in his comprehensive title. His book hardly touches the matters which are the chief concern of several recent treatises on library planning but contains a wealth of information on a great variety of subjects which the library planners mention only casually or omit altogether. Most of this material, as Mr. McComb candidly states in his Foreword, is "applicable with equal effectiveness to the problems encountered in the construction of school houses and other public buildings."

The knowledge and experience which enabled Mr. McComb to write this manual he gained as head of the building department of the Los Angeles Public Library.

Over a period of five years the author assisted in the planning, standardized the specifications, and supervised the construction of twenty-three buildings, costing from \$7,000 to \$60,000 complete and furnished, for the Public Library system of the city of Los Angeles, and for the same period he was responsible for the organization of the Building Department and supervision of maintenance and operation of all buildings, grounds and mechanical equipment of the central library and fifty branches.

The book is divided into six chapters—"Financing," "Design," "Construction," "Equipment," "Operation," "Pest-control." In six Appendixes, which altogether contain twice as much matter as the 136 pages of text, are legal

forms for contracts, questionnaires for bidders, instructions and outlines for the architect, together with standard specifications for every class of work and material. Inserted between the text and the appendixes are eighteen plates giving floor plans and exterior views of eighteen Los Angeles branch libraries, and five plates devoted to the subject of termites.

The chapter on financing contains nothing that is new or that is not more adequately treated in works which are, or should be, accessible to every librarian. The elementary manner in which the subject is presented may, however, make it useful to librarians newly initiated into the intricate mysteries of building finance.

The title of the second chapter, "Design," suggests library architecture but deals almost exclusively with building engineering. There are, indeed, practical suggestions upon how to select a site, how to choose an architect, how to prepare general instructions, and a specific outline of desiderata for the architect—how to make soil tests, etc.

Under the caption "Type of building," the subject of exterior library architecture is somewhat naïvely disposed of in two paragraphs. The eclectic character of modern American architecture is apparently accepted as something quite desirable, and fourteen period styles are listed as having been employed in the design of Los Angeles library buildings. (And such is our astonishing tolerance of period mannerisms that one can readily think of fourteen other well-known "styles" not included in the list.)

It is natural that a treatise based on experience in southern California should not devote a great deal of space to the subject of heating. The author's praise of hot-air furnaces might not be echoed in Maine or Minnesota. It is understandable also that the subject of air-conditioning should be sketched in without much detail. It is a new thing and is likely to be revolutionized by novel applications in the next few years.

The section on lighting seems decidedly incomplete when compared with the detailed treatment accorded to other subjects of far less importance to the average librarian. No mention at all is made of the newer types of reflector that have been used so successfully in recent stack installations, nor is any adequate information given regarding the now well-known and widely used methods of testing the distribution and intensity of light at the point where the reader receives it.

A very large part of the book is devoted to matters so extremely technical that even the best-informed librarian cannot wisely judge them. What is standard practice in California will certainly not be that of forty-seven other states, not to mention the provinces of Canada. Only architects and builders well versed in local conditions can decide most of these matters. If the work were to give adequate information on all these details of materials and construction for all parts of the United States and Canada, it would assume the proportions of an encyclopedia, and the hapless librarian would need a lifetime to digest it.

The book, however, should be very valuable in suggesting to the librarian and board of trustees about to erect a new building a multitude of details which should not be overlooked in giving instructions to the architect. How many librarians suffer no end of needless inconvenience from wet and moldy basements because the architect was not instructed to specify adequate damp-proofing!

The chapter on "Operation" has nothing to do with library management, naturally, but is a detailed treatise on the duties of janitors and engineers and contains minute directions for the care of everything inside and outside of the building, including grounds. There are specific directions for the cleaning and upkeep of practically every type of wall and floor or floor-covering. Special sections are devoted to glass, metal work, plumbing fixtures, locks and keys, electrical and plumbing installations, etc. Not even motor-vehicle operation is omitted. In this chapter, as well as in the final chapter devoted to pest-control, it would seem that the harassed librarian should quickly find the answer to almost any question that the janitorial department might put up to him, or the remedy for almost any deficiency that he might observe in the janitorial performance.

The book is well printed, with no more than the usual number of typographical errors. The format seems unnecessarily large and the paper unduly heavy for a work of this kind. A handier (and incidentally cheaper) volume would find its way to the desk of a far greater number of librarians.

WINTHROP HOLT CHENERY

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY LIBRARY
ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI

Public documents: their selection, distribution, cataloging, reproduction and preservation. Papers presented at the 1934 Conference of the American Library Association. Edited by A. F. KUHLMAN. Chicago: American Library Association, 1935. Pp. 252. \$2.25.

Development of the state document center plan is the goal upon which the Public Documents Committee of the American Library Association has had its eyes turned for the last two years. Charting the course which the library trail should follow over the intervening barriers, clearing a path, and setting up the most economical and effective markers for satisfactory guidance along the way have been its chief concern. Fortunately, such matters have provided a rich and varied program for discussion at the annual conferences. And since many of the document problems raised by the development of the state document center plan are ones which have long and persistently nagged at the profession for solution, their study by this committee has been genuinely welcomed and appreciated. The papers, resulting from such study, written by experienced, competent persons, are a significant contribution to the literature of documents. They have a timely, practical value to everyone using

or handling documents, whether interested in the state document center plan or not. The profession is indebted to Dr. Kuhlman, chairman of the Public Documents Committee, for again collecting, editing, and making permanently available these conference papers,¹ despite a few typographical errors, their not wholly desirable planographed form, and their paper binding.

For the most part these papers represent reports of progress. "They are efforts," says the editor in the Introduction, "to discover basic facts which must be available before the collection, treatment, and use of public documents can be placed upon an effective and professional level." Following the order of the Montreal program, the papers are grouped under eight large divisions indicating the main problems discussed. For example, one section is given over entirely to papers dealing with Canadian documents. This is not merely a matter of courtesy, owing to the fact that the meeting was held in Canada in 1934, but because Canadian documents are most valuable source materials in our own as well as in Canadian libraries, and heretofore have received scant attention in our document discussions.

Regional planning as the next step in the state document center plan.—Dr. Kuhlman clearly states in the first paper that regional planning is now inescapable in the field of public documents, and that "to succeed, such planning must proceed along lines that have been demonstrated to be sound after years of experimentation in other fields in which community organization has been carried on successfully."

The future organization of municipal and state document exchange systems.—A co-operative study by the Public Document Committee and the Special Committee on Municipal Documents of the Civic-Social Group of Special Libraries Association was undertaken to evolve a satisfactory plan for the centralization of the exchange and distribution of municipal documents. As a result, a model ordinance was drafted whereby a public or municipal reference library, in cities of over 100,000, may be designated as such a central agency. Equally feasible appears the measure proposed by Dr. Kuhlman for improving the situation in respect to state publications. The strategic point of the latter is the designation, by the state, of the state university library as the central agency of exchange and distribution in states where, for one reason or another, the state library or the state historical library does not or cannot function in this capacity. Both proposals received the indorsement of those present at the Montreal meeting.

Public document selection in future collections.—"Selection is crucial if useful collections are to be built." Librarians, especially those in the small-college and public library, are well aware of this and are ever seeking assistance in making selection. The three papers in this section should prove particularly

¹ The first collection appeared in 1934 under the title *Public documents: state, municipal, federal, foreign*.

helpful. They are: "The Selection of British official publications," by Angus S. Fletcher, of the British Library of Information; "A Public documents program for accredited four-year colleges," by Kathryn N. Miller; and "The Public documents program of the small public library," by James G. Hodgson.

Improvement in the cataloging of public documents.—Present and future usefulness of documents also depends upon their treatment in libraries—upon such technical library processes as cataloging and classification. One of the papers of this group, "The Author entry for government publications," by James B. Childs, chief of the documents division of the Library of Congress, merits special comment for its scholarly, sane, and thoroughly practical point of view. No doubt a few of the problems having to do with the treatment of documents in libraries could be obviated if the federal authorities would adopt the recommendations for improvement in the numbering and distribution of documents which have been drawn up by a subcommittee under the chairmanship of Jerome K. Wilcox, and found in this volume with other papers on United States documents.

The objectives and content of public document courses.—A question of such far-reaching implications requires more study than the subcommittee, under Mr. P. L. Windsor, could give to it thus far. The preliminary report describes the first step in the study and presents the findings of a questionnaire sent to library schools. There is evidence that teachers of document courses may be groping in the dark for objectives. Possibly the light shed on document problems by the discussion in these papers will prove to be illumination of the most valuable sort to them.

Problems presented by the reproduction and preservation of social-science source materials with special reference to public documents.—The papers in this section present phases of the program of the Joint Committee on Materials of Research.² Dr. Kuhlman briefly recounts the various activities of the Joint Committee and discusses its urgent need for a guide or handbook dealing with the collection, care, organization, and preservation of fugitive materials in the social sciences and humanities. Other papers, highly important to the library administrator, present developments in the new processes of book production, the place of reduced-scale copying in the reproduction of books and other research materials, the status of experimentation with the film-slide method of reproducing documents; and, finally, the results of the experiments conducted by the National Bureau of Standards on conditions affecting the preservation of records.

This collection of 1934 conference papers of the Public Documents Committee is a meaty volume. Its contents, largely in the nature of progress re-

² Established by the Social Science Research Council in co-operation with the American Council of Learned Societies. It is concerned primarily with the preservation of materials of research.

ports, may have timely rather than permanent value, but, in the reviewer's opinion it will continue to be highly interesting for some time to come to the many people in the library profession who are grappling with problems growing out of the collection, treatment, use, and teaching of public documents.

ANNE M. BOYD

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS LIBRARY SCHOOL

A Bibliography of British history (1700-1715). With special reference to the reign of Queen Anne, Vol. I: 1700-1707. By WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN. ("Indiana University studies," Nos. 94 and 95.) Bloomington, Ind.: University of Indiana, 1934. Pp. xvii+524.

The reign of Queen Anne has attracted of late years much interest, both historical and literary. Professor W. T. Morgan, who fifteen years ago won the Herbert Baxter Adams prize with a book entitled *English political parties and leaders, 1702-1710*, has now compiled a bibliography covering certain aspects of half her reign. Here he has dealt with bibliographical aids, pamphlets, and memoirs published before 1700, and pamphlets and memoirs published each year from 1700 to 1707. Inasmuch as five hundred and more pages are allotted to the above-mentioned program, it will be seen that the bibliography is detailed. Unfortunately, the editor does not define clearly what he has attempted to do, and incurs the obvious criticism that he has fallen between two stools—that he has produced a work not so comprehensive as to include practically all the titles a student would need to know about, and yet too bulky to be used as a guide to only the more important items. In fact, a doubt arises whether there is a suitable halfway house between a short-title catalog and a selective bibliography of modest dimensions.

There already exists in print *The Term catalogues*, Volume III, edited by Edward Arber, which covers 1697-1709, and a comparison of it with Dr. Morgan's work shows that the latter is far from exhaustive. Of the first twenty titles listed under June, 1702, in *The Term catalogues*, four seem not to be in Morgan; and a check against the Huntington Library catalog yielded somewhat similar results. However, more fundamental is the question whether all necessary items are included, and the answer must be in the negative. Among the omissions noted were Edward Chamberlayne's *Angliae notitia*, Daniel Defoe's *Essays upon several subjects*, Henry Dodwell's *A Defence of the vindication of the deprived bishops*, William Nicolson's *The Scottish historical library*, and *A Choice collection of papers relating to state affairs*. Under the year 1702 and the author, Defoe, Daniel, occurs:

An elegy upon the author of *The true-born Englishman*, by the author of *The hymn to the pillory*: a poem. 56 pp., 4°, 1702.¹

¹ The date 1704 is given on the title-page, and I see no reason to reject it.

The first ed. of *Hymn to the pillory* and its sequel given as 1703 by B. M. C. In addition to this poem it contains another, *The storm*, which strikes hard blows at the admiralty.

Under 1703 and the same author occurs:

Hymn to the pillory: a poem. iv, 24 pp., 4°, 1703.

This is confusion made worse confounded.

The standard of accuracy attained leaves something to be desired, for there is usually some trifle or other wrong in each entry of three or four lines.² Sometimes omissions in titles are indicated, sometimes not. Owing to a faulty set-up, Cotton Mather's authorship of *Magnalia Christi Americana* appears questionable. In an alphabetical arrangement it is important that the entry should be under "La Bruyère, Jean de," instead of "Bruyère, M. de la." One of the serious mistakes is under "Clarendon, Edward Hyde, first Earl of": "*True historical narrative of the Great Rebellion*." No such book was ever printed, although the first page of the manuscript of Clarendon's *History* bears the title, "*A True historical narration of the Rebellion and Civil Wars in England*."³ Incidentally, this, the most important single source for the civil wars in England, receives the comment, "Valuable primarily for the prefaces and dedications written by his son, Laurence Hyde, first Earl of Rochester, and reflects on the Dissenters." This comment would seem decidedly to belong to the category of things one would rather have said differently.

GODFREY DAVIES

HUNTINGTON LIBRARY
SAN MARINO, CALIFORNIA

The Business bookshelf. A list based on use. Compiled by MARIAN C. MANLEY and MARY E. HUNT under the direction of BEATRICE WINSER. Newark, N.J.: Public Library, 1935. Pp. 75. \$2.00.

The Business bookshelf, fourth in a series of very useful publications known as "The Business information library," and issued by the Business Branch of the Newark Public Library, is addressed primarily to the business man himself and will undoubtedly be of great value to him and to his associates.

As the Foreword points out, the arrangement of the material proceeds from the more immediate problems of the individual to the complex problems of

² An example may suffice: p. 445, No. 1221, "The Charity schools" should be "The Charity of schools," and "parish" should be "parish church."

³ As I have met this mistake before, it might be well to point out that it is based on a misconception of a sentence in the *Dictionary of national biography*, under "Hyde, Edward," where C. H. Firth, after quoting Clarendon's own words (as cited above), says that the work "is generally termed the 'History of the Rebellion.'" It would have been better to say that the Clarendon Press has always published the work as the *History of the Rebellion*.

management and falls into three large groups: "The Business man himself," "The Economic background," and "Business management," to which is appended a very brief list of reference books suggested for business men and a selection from the more popular books issued in the past few years on various phases of economics from "guinea pigs" to "robber barons." An Author and Title Index, an Index by Subjects, and a Directory of Publishers follow.

The selection of titles for the book-list has been based upon the practical usefulness which each has demonstrated in daily use in a large business library. Each title therefore bears a "tested and approved" rating, and each is accompanied by full trade information and is followed by a descriptive note and a numerical symbol which indicates the number of subjects under which the book is indexed—a useful feature to all librarians who must make their book funds do double and treble duty.

It is a hazardous undertaking to offer a list of business books in a day when methods and procedure, if not the entire structure of business, are in a process of change and revision so rapid and all-embracing that business literature cannot keep apace, and perhaps one should not take issue with the compilers' selections. Yet one cannot but wonder why such extremely usable manuals as E. H. Boeckh's *Manual of appraisals* (Indianapolis: Rough Notes Co., 1934), F. M. Babcock's *The Valuation of real estate* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1932) are missing; whether F. Y. Keeler and A. E. Haase's *The Advertising agency* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1927) has not proved as useful in Newark as it has elsewhere; why J. C. Bonbright and G. C. Means's *The Holding company* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1932) is omitted from the list on "Holding companies"; and why the list on "Commercial paper" holds no mention of R. A. Foulke's *Commercial paper market* (New York: Bankers Publishing Co., 1931). Obviously no list of this size could contain all titles which local needs may elevate to importance, but some of the books omitted are so outstanding and so useful as to raise a query.

The subject headings employed are generally of a popular nature—not those in use by the orthodox cataloger. In the main this may be an advantage and may make the list appear more attractive to the business man, though some of the headings seem somewhat vague and meaningless, as, for instance, "Some vital business phases," the heading of section x, which includes four books on real estate, two on foreign trade, and one on transportation.

The Subject Index analyzes very closely the material contained in the books enumerated and brings out many hidden sources of data, though more attention to bibliographical thoroughness and consistency might have added considerably to its value. For instance, a reader searching the Index for material on "Business cycles" is referred to "Business—Stabilization," though "Business cycles" appears as a part of a main section subject heading, "Forecasting and business cycles," and is a fairly important term in the vocabulary of students of business problems. Cross references, though copious, have not been as carefully correlated as a bibliography of this character would warrant.

There seems to be no explanation of the asterisk which appears before certain of the entries under "Bibliographies" in the Subject Index. Titles in the section, "Current economics in popular style," are not included in either Index.

In spite of these minor criticisms, this reviewer believes *The Business bookshelf* will be of great service to business men and librarians in the assembling and use of business literature.

GRACE A. ENGLAND

DOWNTOWN LIBRARY
DETROIT, MICHIGAN

A Reader's guide to the British Library of Political and Economic Science. London: London School of Economics and Political Science, 1934. Pp. 97+[7]. 6d.

The Introduction forming the first chapter of this *Guide to the British Library of Political and Economic Science*, states that the library was founded in 1896 by the London School of Economics and Political Science, and that its function is twofold: to satisfy the needs of undergraduate students of the School and to provide material for graduate students and other approved persons doing research work.

The undergraduates comprise the largest number of readers, and the arrangement of the reading-rooms follows the main branches of the teaching work of the school, providing material for reading parallel to the lectures and additional material for more advanced students who wish to pursue further the work outlined by the lectures. The second function of the library—the accumulation of material for graduate students and other research workers—has for its goal the acquisition of the more important publications of all the principal governments of the world, and periodicals covering long periods of such governments. In short, all source material that falls within the field of the social sciences will be acquired and cataloged.

The purpose of the *Guide* is to explain the methods by which the library places all this material at the service of its readers. Chapter ii deals with the rules of admission. Four classes of readers are eligible for the use of the library: (1) students of the London School of Economics and Political Science; (2) persons engaged in any branch of public administration in the British Empire or any other country; (3) professors and lecturers of any recognized university; and (4) such other persons as may be admitted by the director.

The next three chapters contain a brief description of the library building, the arrangement of the rooms, and their contents. Chapter vi explains the arrangement of the books on the shelves. The classification used is the Library of Congress Classification, modified by the addition of Dewey country numbers. Following this, three chapters describe the catalog which is printed in four volumes and kept up to date by a card supplement. Instructions on how to obtain a book from the shelves are given in some detail. A specimen voucher or call slip is inserted here, containing information which specifically identi-

fies each book used and gives its place in the library of the user. This is a very convenient check for the library staff and reader in search of any desired book which may not be on the shelves at the time. Books which are in great demand are "impounded" or reserved at the book counter, and books required for use by an individual on several successive days are kept at the counter for his use. This avoids unnecessary delay for the reader and saves work for the staff. Such books are termed "kept" books.

An interesting description of the special collections constitutes the tenth chapter. These are grouped in four different divisions as follows: (1) special libraries: the Fry Library of International Law, the Schuster Library of Comparative Legislation, the Acworth collection on transport, and the Hutchinson collection on socialism; (2) parliamentary and official publications of all the British Dominions and colonies and of the more important foreign countries (this collection forms a library of deposit for all United States government documents, and it holds almost a complete set from 1873); (3) documents issued by municipal authorities (here are official publications of more than three hundred municipalities of the United Kingdom, Europe, and the United States); (4) manuscript and other collections bequeathed or purchased (manuscript collections of John Stuart Mill are here).

The final chapters give instructions for the use of the reading-rooms, seminar libraries, and the lending or circulating library, which contains a representative collection of the more important general textbooks used by undergraduate students, and enumerate the facilities, such as interlibrary loan and photostat services, which are provided for readers.

There are eight Appendixes which to the average reader, who is not a resident of the school, are perhaps the most useful part of the *Guide*. The first Appendix is a list of subject headings according to the Library of Congress Classification, and the second is a guide to the rooms where these classifications are shelved. The third Appendix gives a list of more important Dewey country numbers, helpful to students using international material. Appendixes IV and V list works of reference and periodicals owned by the library; Appendix VI contains a list of indexes to government publications of the United Kingdom; and Appendix VII lists the most important and familiar indexes to the United States government documents. The last Appendix is probably the most useful feature of the book. It contains a list of unofficial or popular names of British parliamentary reports arranged both chronologically from the year 1875 and alphabetically. Many reports are known by the general reader only by the name of the chairman of the commission or committee responsible for them, and the usual indexes are of no service in such cases. This list supplies this important service. Such a list has long been needed for United States government documents and reports to supplement the list of popular names of federal statutes published by the Library of Congress.

The *Guide* has not only admirably served its purpose of explaining the methods of placing the resources of the library at the service of its readers, but by the addition of the Appendixes it has been made a useful book of reference.

CORA M. GETTYS

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO LIBRARIES

1000 books for the senior high school library. Compiled by a JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH, MARY ELIZABETH FOSTER, chairman. Chicago: American Library Association, 1935. Pp. 96. \$1.00.

Heralded by a Foreword by the Commissioner of Education and backed by the weighty authority of three national associations, the successor to Miss Meta Schmidt's *500 books for the senior high school library* (1930) makes its long delayed appearance. Its scope—an evident attempt to enumerate the essential books for the high-school library—its moderate price, and its sponsors will quite probably render it the most influential single book on the high-school library for some years. It deserves, therefore, careful consideration.

The present work is in several ways an improvement over Miss Schmidt's list. Not only have the compilers doubled the number of titles, but they have wisely chosen to follow the classification of the *Standard catalog for high school libraries* (thus rendering easier the simultaneous use of the two bibliographies); they have added the dates of publication to the entries of the non-fiction titles; and—most important of all—they have cited the prices not only of the standard editions but also of inexpensive reprints. The last undertaking is so well performed throughout—sometimes even four or five good editions of the title are cited (p. 61)—that we feel disappointed when we find in places the empty note that "cheaper editions [are] available" (pp. 41, 50).

Bibliographically, the list on the whole is good. One misprint, however, "giants" for "giant ser.," occurs at an unfortunate place (p. 10). Again, the entry under *Roget's thesaurus* (p. 18) exhibits a curious series of bibliographical misadventures. The one-dollar edition described there as "pap. ed." is not, as one would naturally surmise, a paper-bound edition; it is the out-of-print popular edition of Crowell to which Grosset and Dunlap's edition at the same price is almost certainly preferable for high-school use. Although even minor illustrators are frequently noted, no indication is given that Chase and Tyler's *Mexico* is illustrated by Diego Rivera (p. 46). The entry under Slosson's *Creative chemistry* would lead the reader to believe that the Garden City Publishing Company's edition is the revised one of 1930; it is a reprint of the edition of 1921 (p. 31).

The notes in this list are of widely varying value. On the whole, those in

the fiction section are excellent. Occasionally, on the other hand, as in the case of the note to the *Readers' guide* (p. 9), an otherwise helpful note is spoiled by an overuse of technical library terms which renders it unintelligible to the layman. All too frequently, also, the notes approach banality. Such remarks as "Useful in this field" (p. 16), "A useful textbook" (p. 22), "Extremely useful if this type of material is in demand" (p. 23), are needless commendations for a book included in a select list. On the other hand, for example, no description is given of the type of material found in the different volumes of Schauffler's "Our American holidays" series (p. 37), nor is any warning given of the numerous inaccuracies of Van Loon's *Story of mankind* (p. 44). The note to Schlesinger's *Political and social growth of the United States* (p. 58) is neither clear nor accurate, but such notes are fortunately few.

In the choice of the titles of the thousand select books lies the greatest interest of the present work. It is unfortunate that the compilers have not been a little more specific as to what the list really is. They leave us in doubt as to whether or not this is a list of suggested first purchases for the average high school collecting its first thousand books. They point out, however, that "in no way does the committee suggest blanket purchase of all titles," but merely claims that it is a list of "subject books which have proved useful in the high school field" (p. 7). The Commissioner of Education, on the other hand, holds that "not only will this list of a thousand books furnish valuable suggestions for purchase, but it will serve as a standard of measurement for existing collections" (p. 5). In view of this opinion, let us inspect the list to see how nearly it comes to meeting the standard of an ideal list for first purchase for the average school buying its first thousand books.

In tone the selections here seem more daring and provocative than those of the *Standard catalog for high school libraries*. The omission of Peck's *Harper's dictionary of Greek and Roman antiquities*, for example, shows the extent to which the classics have departed from the high school. On the other hand, at times the compilers have shown a strange conservatism. Is the British *Who's who* (priced at \$15) used enough in the average high school to justify its inclusion among the first thousand purchases? Probably the most spectacular departure from the conventional is its omission of the *New international encyclopaedia*, the most popular adult encyclopedia in the high school, and the recommendation of two more expensive encyclopedias in its place. Many school librarians will doubt the advisability of this innovation.

The inclusion of so many sets of books seems to the reviewer a distinct defect in this list. In the past, at least, sets have proved unsatisfactory in the school. Even at its present moderate price, it is doubtful if *Grove's dictionary of music* should have a place in an average school purchasing its first thousand titles. With the possible exception of large city schools, the *Cambridge history of English literature* will in all probability be found too advanced for general use by high-school pupils. Excellent as are the volumes of the "Chronicles of America" series, the reviewer cannot but doubt the advisability of introducing this set of fifty uniformly bound books into a small school library.

Other defects, in the reviewer's opinion, are noticeable in the selection of the books. Balance is sometimes lacking. Although, for example, there are listed three lives of Lincoln, there is not one of Lee. Does such an old and unattractive book as Riis's description of the sin and suffering of New York forty-five years ago, *How the other half lives*, merit inclusion in a list which cannot find room for Wald's *Windows on Henry Street*, Addams' *The Second twenty years at Hull House*, or Stern's *My mother and I*? Again, although the *Americana annual* is cited in a note as a possible purchase, no mention is made in the corresponding note of the *World book encyclopedia annual*—a publication which, because of its low price and adolescent appeal, is of great value to the high school. Not always has the choice of editions been happy. Does not William Shakespeare deserve to be presented to the pupils in a more attractive form than that of Neilson's one-volume edition, excellent though that is at the price? Again, the compilers have not always remembered what an important rôle the cost of books plays in many libraries. Is Johnson's *Safari* at five dollars, for example, preferable to the author's more recent books, *Lion* and *Con-gorilla*, both of which are available in one-dollar editions? Finally, two books, quite excellent in their fields, are often unsuitable for conservative communities, such as are found in rural districts. Dr. Clendening's Rabelaisian humor, which he displays in *The Human body*, can antagonize powerful religious groups, and the morbid tone of some of the earlier chapters of Hugh Walpole's *Fortitude* sometimes has an undesirable effect upon adolescents of certain temperaments.

Although, in the opinion of the reviewer, the present work cannot serve "as a standard for the measurement of existing collections," it is nevertheless an interesting and valuable aid. One is impressed with the large amount of live, challenging material which is brought together here, and this list will do much to guard the school library from the "humdrumness" into which it is all too likely to fall. The reviewer hopes that new editions will appear at frequent intervals in order that the list may keep its up-to-date tone, and he should like to suggest that subject headings be added for the benefit of rural schools which cannot afford Library of Congress cards. This could be done at small expense, and they would fill some of the surplus white space which in this edition sometimes spreads itself in yawning gaps across the pages (cf. pp. 10, 45, 46).

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY

Checklist of southern periodicals to 1861. By GERTRUDE C. GILMER.
("Useful reference series," No. 49.) Boston: F. W. Faxon, 1934.
Pp. 128. \$1.75.

This *Checklist* was compiled for a history of southern literary magazines, but the basis for inclusion is much broader than this statement might imply. All southern periodicals are included with the exception of "newspapers,

annuals, almanacs, gift books, law reports and digests, alumni and undergraduate publications, administrative and legislative serials."

"The titles are given with (1) place of imprint, (2) periodicity, and (3) dates of first and last issues when files could be located to determine these facts Only the most important title variations are given." The titles are arranged in one alphabetical list, by states, and by year of birth. A map shows the number published in each city.

Seven hundred and fifty-seven titles are listed. Of this number, five hundred appear in the *Union list of serials* and its two *Supplements*; and two hundred and fifty titles do not appear in the *Union list*.

Opinions will differ about certain features of the *Checklist*. The reviewer is puzzled by the territorial layout. Why is Delaware included and Missouri excluded? Vance in *Human geography of the South* omits Delaware, Maryland, and Missouri.

The *Union list of serials* had to be selective to be kept within limits. It would be very desirable to set no limits to this *Checklist*, but to include all serials in it. Its title implies this; it ought to be the one source to which to turn to learn whether a certain periodical was published and where and when.

Failure to designate location of holdings will appear to some as a serious omission. Since two-thirds of the titles appear in the *Union list*, which most users of the *Checklist* will have available, the publisher, I think, was right when he considered the reprinting of this information as a needless expense. It would have increased the size and cost of the book. However, closer coordination with the *Union list* is necessary. By the use of a few symbols the *Checklist* could direct the reader to the *Union list* where additional information may be found, and by properly marking the titles that do not appear in the *Union list* the reader would be spared a useless search.

The useful features of the *Checklist* outnumber its defects, which are omissions that can be remedied in a second edition. Bringing together in a handy volume the titles of southern periodicals, 1764-1860, is a useful service, and it opens the way for other interesting work. The map shows what cities were publishing centers. The list calls attention to the extent and kind of periodical literature in the South before the war.

E. W. WINKLER

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS

Jahrbuch der Bücherpreise. Ergebnisse der Versteigerungen in Deutschland, Deutsch-Österreich, Holland, der Schweiz, Skandinavien, der Tschechoslowakei, Ungarn. Band XXVIII (1933). Compiled by GERTRUD HEBBELER. Leipzig: Otto Harrassowitz, 1934. Pp. x+267. Rm. 20.

This latest volume of the *Jahrbuch der Bücherpreise*, the German book-auction records, differs from its predecessors neither in format nor in content.

Again its compilation has been intrusted to the capable and experienced hand of Gertrud Hebbeler. This volume shows an increase in size over its immediate predecessor—257 pages as compared with 221. The details for the two years 1932–33 are as follows:

NUMBER OF AUCTION SALES AND ITEMS EVALUATED

YEAR			GERMAN AUCTIONS		NON-GERMAN AUCTIONS*	
	Auctions	Items	Auctions	Items	Auctions	Items
1932.....	54	52,214	28	19,425	26	32,789
1933.....	46	39,231	17	11,329	29	27,902

* Austria, Holland, Switzerland, Scandinavian countries, Czechoslovakia, Hungary.

Probably one should not attempt to draw any definite conclusion from the decrease in the number of German auctions. It is well known that auctions increase in times of depression as well as in times of prosperity.

As to the contents, this volume again contains important material—primarily German, of course. Important rarities, which will probably not be offered for sale again for a long time to come, are listed. Herein lies the bibliographical value of the *Jahrbuch*. In this class of material the outstanding auctions of the year 1933 were those of the Fürst Dietrichstein Collection and of the Fugger Library (Oettingen-Wallerstein).

Like all other auction prices, these present no unified picture. If any generalization is permissible, it is that the price-level of those books which were formerly priced too high continues to fall. Incunabula with only their fifteenth-century date to recommend them brought astonishingly low prices (i.e., Albertus Magnus, 1478, GW. 581, \$8.00; Barberis, a Neapolitan incunabulum with two other items bound in, GW. 3388, H. 13113, and H. 15673, \$52). Incunabula with valuable illustrations likewise showed low prices, though to a less degree (i.e., *Schatzbehalter*, 1491, H. 14507, \$525, which formerly was sold for as much as \$1,500; Columna's *Hypnerotomachia Polyphili* brought \$875, while it was formerly priced up to \$2,000). A German edition of Boccaccio *De claris mulieribus*, 1473, GW. 4436, brought the relatively high price of \$1,625. Schedel, H. 14508, which is much cheaper because it is commoner, actually once increased in value (\$460).

Important bindings sold very high (e.g., two full morocco bindings in the style of Maioli: Aristotle, 1526, \$360; Lucian, 1522, \$515; full morocco Fugger binding: Demosthenes, 1522, \$500). Prices for old natural science books and for old medical works remained much the same (e.g., Copernicus, 1543, \$310; Dryander, 1538, \$116). Illustrated folk books of the sixteenth

¹ It should be noted that the prices throughout this review are quoted in gold dollars.

century increased in value (e.g., *Appolonius von Tyrus*, *Schöne Magelone*, *Heldenbuch*, etc.).

Relatively poorly represented, and, for that reason, difficult to discuss, are the eighteenth- and nineteenth-century French books and German literature of the classical and romantic period. The most important book of the eighteenth century which was sold at auction was Fénelon, 1785, Cohen 384-86, in two full morocco volumes by Brandel *ainé*, priced at \$1,900. To take an example from the nineteenth-century books, *Chants et chansons populaires*, 1843-44, brought \$60, a rather low price if the book was offered in the original boards as indicated. Whether or not the bad reception given in recent years to German literature has kept some collectors and auctioneers out of the market would be difficult to determine.

It should be noted that the prices recorded in this volume do not include the 15 per cent tax which must be added to the auction figures. Moreover, in order to obtain a clear picture of the market, one should also know definitely how many books, and among them which good ones, found no buyers.

RUDOLF HIRSCH

NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY

Special libraries directory of the United States and Canada. Compiled by SPECIAL LIBRARIES ASSOCIATION, SPECIAL COMMITTEE, ELEANOR S. CAVANAUGH, chairman. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1935. Pp. ix+263. \$5.00.

This *Directory* is the third of its kind, previous editions having appeared in 1921 and 1925—all publications of the Special Libraries Association. This issue includes 1,475 special libraries and special collections in public and university libraries in the United States and Canada.

Information concerning these libraries and collections is grouped in a "Geographical list," arranged alphabetically by states. Cities are grouped alphabetically under each state, and libraries are grouped alphabetically under each city. All items are numbered consecutively.

Three indexes—an alphabetical organization list, a personnel index, and a subject index of 3,700 items—are keyed back into the main entries by means of their serial numbers.

Unfortunately the main entries vary so greatly in the degree of completeness that the net result is highly misleading. The term "special collections" is also used too loosely. In many instances the titles of serials are entered as though a periodical could be reported as a special collection. The basis on which special libraries are included or omitted is also difficult to understand. Why should the Huntington Library and Art Gallery be included while the John Crerar Library and the Newberry Library are omitted? Why should some departmental libraries for certain universities be included while in the

same institutions others that are representative special libraries are omitted? Obviously the terms "special libraries" and "special collections" need to be defined more sharply.

Perhaps the alphabetically arranged organization index would have been more useful if the libraries had been classified. It is useful only if one already knows the exact name of the library or the libraries one desires to look up. But if one tries to find all libraries of a particular class—say insurance, medicine, law, etc.—one must turn to these headings in the subject index only to find listed many serial numbers to main entries, a part of which refer to special libraries devoted to these subjects, but the majority of which refer to special libraries dealing primarily with other subjects, yet having some material on the subjects in question.

The limitations of the *Directory* are primarily due to an inadequate questionnaire and to the fact that a small group of busy librarians tried to do the work on a voluntary basis during their free hours.

The *Directory* will prove valuable despite its shortcomings. Nevertheless, it does represent an opportunity lost, for here was an occasion when librarianship as a profession should have been advanced through sharp definitions and adequate classification of material. The diversity and rapid growth of special libraries have made it desirable that this be done in this edition of the *Directory*.

A. F. KUHLMAN

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO LIBRARIES

The Beginnings of the library in Charles Town, South Carolina. By EDGAR LEGARE PENNINGTON. (Reprinted from the *Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society*, for April, 1934.) Worcester, Mass.: American Antiquarian Society, 1935. Pp. 31.

This study is based on a photo-film reproduction in the Library of Congress of manuscript materials belonging to Dr. Bray's associates preserved in London in the building of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. From this source the author reprints the original lists of books which Rev. Thomas Bray sent to South Carolina during the years 1698-1701 to found a library at Charles Town. The original contribution of the author then follows with the patient bibliographical identification of the 233 titles which Dr. Bray itemized in his lists so elliptically.

The first thought of Dr. Bray in establishing libraries in the British Dominions was the provision of books for the Anglican clergy. But he soon realized that his parochial libraries could be used by the lay population as well and spoke of giving "further means of instruction and edification to the people in the plantations." This proposal for enlarged usefulness so appealed to the Colonial government of South Carolina that it contributed substantially to

the library project in Charles Town. The result was a public library which loaned and circulated books, although it is probable that the principal—if not the only—beneficiaries were clergy and gentry.

As further illustration and documentation of the country's intellectual beginnings, Dr. Bray's book inventories are interesting. The fact that 159 of the titles listed deal with religion—leaving 74 in the fields of history, travel, medicine, mathematics, and the classics—is probably a fair indication of the ratio of various interests in the Colonial period.

A. K. BORDEN

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

Composers of today. A comprehensive biographical and critical guide to modern composers of all nations. Compiled and edited by DAVID EWEN. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1934. Pp. xii+314. \$4.50.

In his *Composers of today*, David Ewen has presented to the world, according to his own statement, the first "comprehensive work devoted exclusively to modern composers." The author-compiler has undertaken a truly heroic task, for he admits that "this book is not a mere 'who's who' of modern composers; its scope is more ambitious than that of any existing lexicon or dictionary of music." He has not only "attempted to assemble all the available biographical material on each composer," but he has selected himself for "spreading the gospel of modern music to the ever increasing audiences of music-lovers who fill the concert halls, and who clutch at radio-dials."

It is doubtful if the reader will share the author's satisfaction. He will find not a "comprehensive" work but a list of two hundred names selected from the multitude of modern composers. Mr. Ewen has made this selection according to three self-imposed principles—"first, only living composers are included; second, their artistic aim had to be of the highest; and third, their work has had to arouse sufficient curiosity." Mr. Ewen disregarded the first principle, limiting himself only by the second and third, which is to say, he has included those composers whose work appeals to him personally.

The result is the omission of many important names. These omissions include such men as Oscar Esplá and Conrado del Campo, two of the three leading Spanish composers—De Falla, the third, is mentioned. Other omissions are Samuel Feinberg and Anatole Alexandrof, who, with Miaskovsky (mentioned) represent the foremost group of Russian composers.

It is impossible to conjecture the reasons for omitting Frederick Stock, or Sir Hamilton Harty, that great Irish conductor-composer whose position among the ranking conductors of Europe resembles that of Stock in America. It would seem that the symphonies, choruses, and concertos of these two great men, in the opinion of Mr. Ewen, do not measure up to the music of Russell Bennett or to Alexander Weprik's exploitations of Jewish themes.

Felix Borowski, Johan Wagenaar, and Eric Cundell are likewise omitted,

as are Eric De Lamarter, Walter Damrosch, and Joaquin Turina. The fact that Cecil Gibbs is a song-writer disqualifies him, as it does Philip Heseltine, although the latter's songs are some of the best since 1900. Among song writers only George Gershwin was able to overcome Mr. Ewen's disregard for songs and their makers to the extent of being admitted to his book.

The foregoing omissions are especially interesting since these names may all be found in Hull's *Dictionary*, one of those lexicons so scornfully referred to by Mr. Ewen as "not only out of date" but containing "comments . . . so sparse and inadequate as to be hardly enlightening." A casual examination of Pratt's *Encyclopedia*, Einstein's German edition of Hull, Grove, or Riemann would indefinitely extend this list of important men who are disregarded by Ewen.

As to the "sparseness" and "inadequacy" of the comments in the various texts, that of Ewen compares somewhat unfavorably. Sentiment, turgidity, and a fictionized style too frequently consume space that should be allotted to facts. Verboseness and redundancy are cardinal sins in an encyclopedia. It would have been better to have dated the compositions or the biographical events; better to have cited further biographical and critical materials; better to have noted first performances; certainly better to have listed complete works instead of two or three titles selected at random. Ewen lists twelve of Bantock's compositions; Einstein lists eighty.

No serious reader can forgive the failure to include publishers, or the manner in which whole decades in a man's life are passed over with the comment, "Many important positions were held." Many readers will regret that honors are seldom recorded and scholarly degrees never.

A case in point is the article on Sir Henry W. Davies, in which the following facts might well have been included:

Organist Christ Church, Hampstead, 1891-98; chairman of the National Council of Music, University of Wales from 1919; Mus. Doc. Cantab. 1896; LL.D. h.c. Leeds, 1904; F.R.A.M. h.c. 1922; F.R.C.M. h.c. 1924.

With regard to "spreading the gospel of modern music," Ewen seems to have selected his comments with an eagerness to attempt a final evaluation rather than with any desire to inform his public. All things considered, Mr. Ewen's effort is rather beneath than above the "who's who's" and encyclopedias with which he hopes to compete.

J. T. WINDLE

NEWBERRY LIBRARY

Dictionary of American slang. By MAURICE H. WESEEN. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1934. Pp. xiii+543. \$2.50.

Libraries, and particularly reference libraries, will be interested in this book as a contribution to the reference shelves and as a supplement to the more

orthodox dictionaries. It "aims to make available a fairly complete collection of American slang classified with reasonable accuracy according to the principal types."² As the author himself admits, the life of a slang expression is likely to be short; in just this measure the life of this book as a mirror of contemporary informal language will be short. But its value as a historical document is likely to increase with the years.

The arrangement of the material under the classes of the population or the professions which make use of the expressions is perhaps justified by its value to writers. Some of these divisions are "Crooks' and criminals' slang"; "Hoboes' and tramps' slang"; "Railroaders' slang," etc. A complete Index makes easy the discovery of the definition of any phrase in spite of the subject arrangement.

Librarians will perhaps be disappointed to discover that if they have a slang the author has not included it. It is a hard world, after all! Our social significance was denied by our omission from *Recent social trends*; now it appears that we have no linguistic significance!

WILLIAM M. RANDALL

GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL
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America's young men. The official who's who among the young men of the nation, Vol. I (1934). Edited by DURWARD HOWES. Los Angeles: Richard Blank Publishing Co., 1934. Pp. xlvii+678. \$10.

American women. The official who's who among the women of the nation, 1935-36. Edited by DURWARD HOWES. Los Angeles: Richard Blank Publishing Co., 1935. Pp. xlviii+665. \$10.

These two dictionaries of biography have been published by the Richard Blank Publishing Company under the editorship of Durward Howes. Their usefulness will justify their purchase by most libraries.

America's young men lists in its 678 pages the biographies of some 4,182 men under the age of forty. These include men from a large number of professions as well as business men and government officials. It is a first volume of what is intended to be an annual publication. *American women* lists the biographies of 6,214 women. Again the spread of professions is large. This is the first volume of a biennial series.

Among the most interesting features of these volumes are the statistical summaries. These distribute the listed persons according to many factors, including age, birthplace, occupation, church, and political party. It is perhaps worthy of note that 95 per cent of the men who have achieved recogni-

² Pref., p. vi.

tion and 82 per cent of the women have attended an institution of higher education.

The usefulness of these volumes to the reference departments of libraries is almost self-evident. The limited fields which they cover make it possible to include in them names which are not to be found in *Who's who in America*. This is particularly true perhaps of the volume concerning young men, which lists many names of persons in whom the public is interested but who have not yet achieved sufficient recognition for listing in the more general source. The inclusion of business men also covers a field which is not taken care of in the standard publication.

The editor admits that names have been omitted which should have been included. This is to be expected. Subsequent editions will doubtless correct these omissions as they are called to the attention of the publishers. But, as they stand, the volumes will have a usefulness which will well repay the effort which has gone into their compilation and which will certainly repay their cost to libraries purchasing them.

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BOOK NOTES

Background readings for American history. A bibliography for students, librarians and teachers of history. Compiled by JEAN CAROLYN ROOS. ("Reading for background," No. 1.) New York: H. W. Wilson, 1935. Pp. 48. \$0.35.

This pamphlet contains a considerable number of titles selected to vitalize the study of American history, and classified according to nine chronological periods, from "Discovery and exploration (1000-1607)" to the present time. Both fiction and non-fiction are included, and with each title appears a terse and usually adequate annotation.

Catalogers' and classifiers' yearbook. Number four, 1934. Compiled by CATALOG SECTION OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Chicago: American Library Association, 1935. Pp. 168. \$1.75.

The reappearance of this publication after a lapse of one year is an occasion for rejoicing. The present volume duplicates the preceding issues in the importance of its content. It contains besides the "Proceedings" of the Catalog Section (Montreal Conference) of the American Library Association and certain papers selected from regional group meetings, three other articles and a bibliography of cataloging and classification for 1933-34.

Particularly valuable and significant are the reports on "The Use of the card catalog." Much more work of this sort is needed in order to bring about a revision of present cataloging practices and methods which will make of the catalog the useful tool that it should be.

International bibliography of historical sciences. Fifth year, 1930. Edited for the INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF HISTORICAL SCIENCES. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1934. Pp. cxii+514. \$9.90 in paper; \$10.65 in cloth.¹

This is the sixth volume of the *International bibliography of historical sciences* to be issued by the International Committee of Historical Sciences, although it covers the fifth year (1930) chronologically. Volumes have now been issued for 1926-30 inclusive, and for 1932; and the 1931 volume is to be published sometime this year. This volume covering the publications of 1930 lists 6,419 publications. Professor J. H. Baxter of the University of St. Andrews, Saint Andrews, Scotland, served as chairman of the committee of editors. The Preface and the headings to the sections are in Italian. The present work follows its predecessors in the arrangement of the material and in the criteria used for the selection of the items, and likewise contains a geographical index and an index to the authors and to the persons named in the titles.

Readings for French, Latin, German. A bibliography of materials for atmosphere and background for pupils in foreign language classes. Edited by ALICE R. BROOKS. ("Reading for background," No. 3.) New York: H. W. Wilson, 1935. Pp. 32. \$0.35.

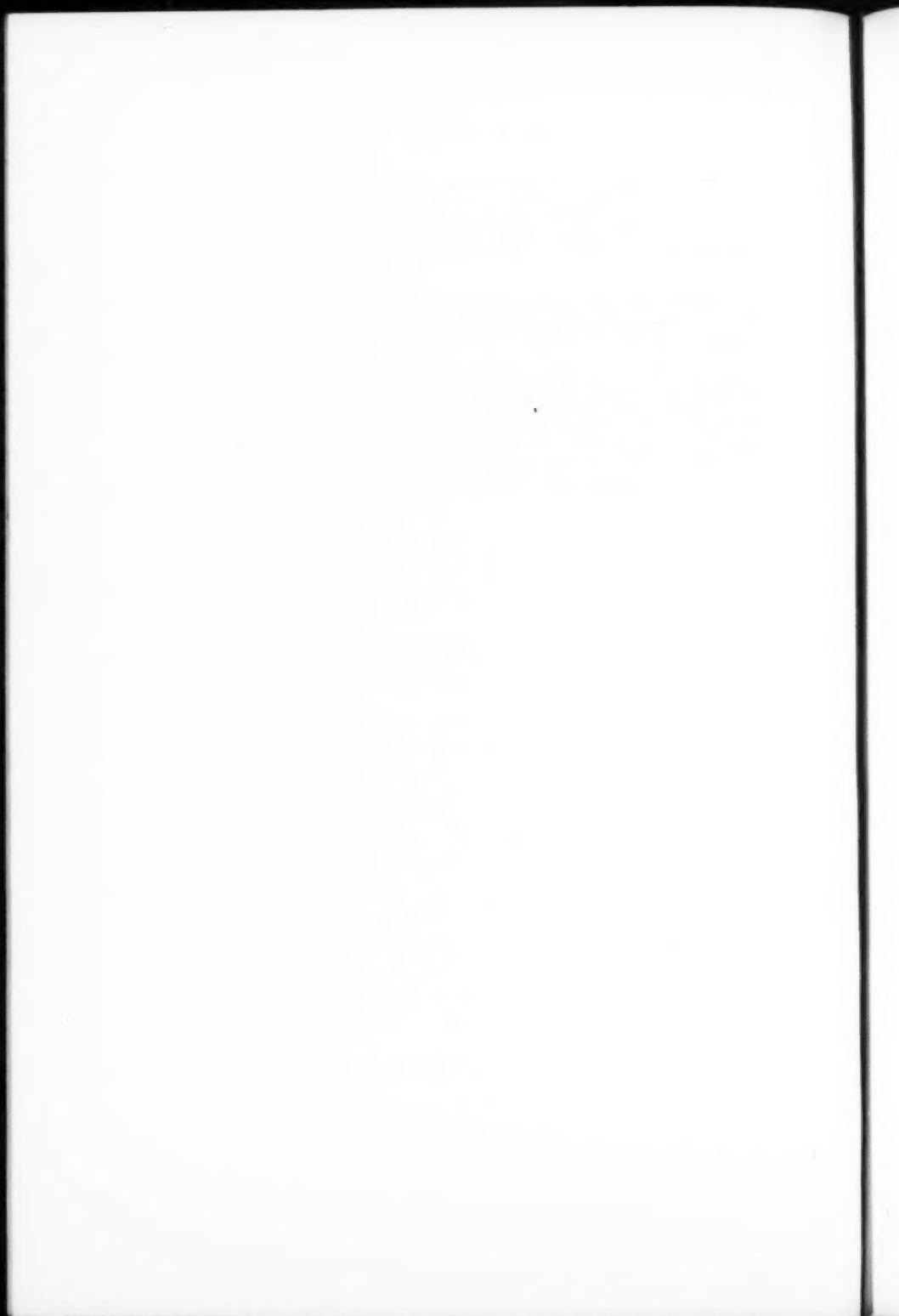
On the theory that foreign-language teaching aims "to reveal the life and character of the countries represented by these languages," this bibliography lists a number of

¹ . . . First year, 1926 reviewed in *Library quarterly*, II (1932), 427.

titles likely to be useful in describing numerous aspects of such countries. There are books on art, travel, history, literature, science, etc.—the titles selected from the *Standard catalog for high school libraries*, the *Children's catalog*, and the *Standard catalog for public libraries*. The usefulness of this list to any school library will be conditioned by the seriousness with which the objective cited above is taken by the instructional staff.

What shall we read next? A program of reading sequences. Compiled by JEAN CAROLYN ROOS. ("Reading for background," No. 2.) New York: H. W. Wilson, 1935. Pp. 31. \$0.35.

Some sixty-five titles are listed in this pamphlet, and after each one there are cited from five to ten additional titles, supposedly similar in content, setting, or subject matter. The books, fiction and non-fiction, are divided into four broad groups: "Adventure," "Romance," "Historical romance," and "Books of distinction." Very often the affinity between the major and related titles is slight, but for persons who desire subject-matter semblances in their reading, and are only secondarily or not at all interested in stylistic similarities, this pamphlet will prove suggestive.



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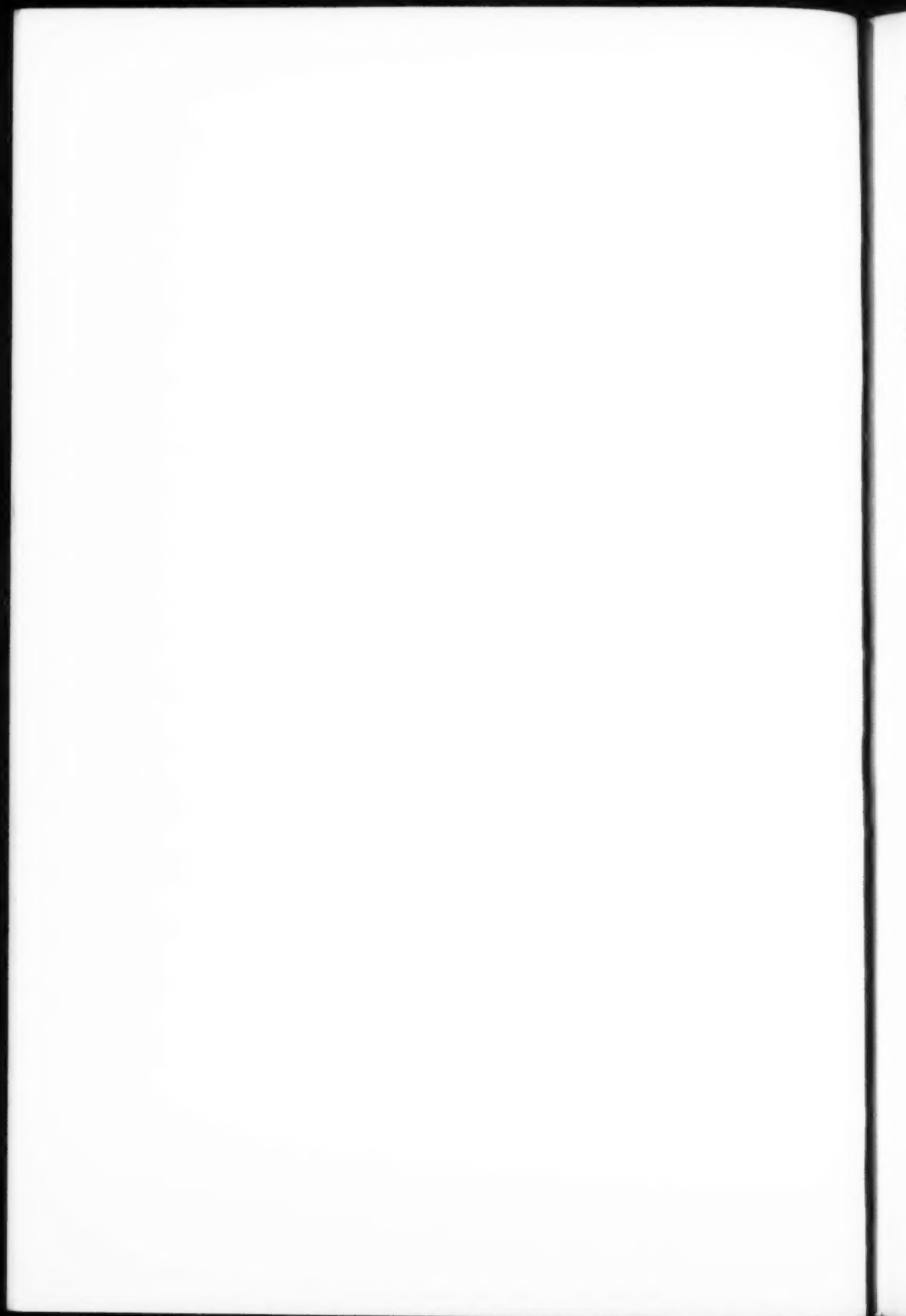
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